

Lincoln University Digital Thesis

Copyright Statement

The digital copy of this thesis is protected by the Copyright Act 1994 (New Zealand).

This thesis may be consulted by you, provided you comply with the provisions of the Act and the following conditions of use:

- you will use the copy only for the purposes of research or private study
- you will recognise the author's right to be identified as the author of the thesis and due acknowledgement will be made to the author where appropriate
- you will obtain the author's permission before publishing any material from the thesis.

An Exploration of the Process of Brand Identity Building and Internal Organisational Culture

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

At

Lincoln University

by

Sabrina Mohd Rashid

Lincoln University

2012

Abstract of a thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

**Exploring and Understanding the Process of Brand Identity
Building and Internal Organisational Culture in the Food and
Beverage Industry**

by
Sabrina Mohd Rashid

Building a strong brand identity has become a major marketing concern for many organisations. In previous years, the focus was on the interaction between organisation and customers. This study extended previous research by providing a deeper exploration and understanding of how the organisation developed through the process of brand identity building and its relationship to internal organisational culture.

Based on Kapferer's (1992) brand identity prism, Hofstede and Hofstede's (2005) onion model, and an extensive literature review, a conceptual model was built as a guide for this research. A qualitative approach with semi-structured interviews was used to explore the food and beverage industry. Interviews were carried out with 15 independent coffee shops in Christchurch, New Zealand.

The theory of brand identity and internal organisational culture were then analysed. There were three key findings from this research that indicated attentiveness among the respondents about brand identity and the internal organisational practices in an organisation. First, having an appropriate brand name, a distinctive concept, an engaging leader's personality, a 'do it myself' attitude, the length of time in the industry and having an original concept will assist the process of brand identity creation. Second, employees' obligations to routine operations, exercise of internal marketing among employees, identifying elements of personal values and factors influencing employees' values and motivations, related directly to constructing the

internal culture. Third, the adaptation and assimilation process and brand existence mapping played an important role in assimilating the brand identity into an internal culture.

This study contributed to our understanding of how brand identity was built, then connected it to the internal culture of the organisation. The findings suggested that the process of creating and building a brand identity was more complicated than just creating the visual imagery. It relied on a learning process, which involved teaching and practising the rituals that needed to be engaged in by every individual in the organisation. It also included efforts to actively present the identity of the brand or the organisation to the consuming public. It was essential to ensure distinctiveness in an outlet's identity to attract customers' attention and to better understand the interaction between these brand identity building elements.

This study concluded that the adaptation and assimilation process has a significant role in creating a unique service organisation. A conceptual framework was developed and presented in this thesis. The framework focused on the process of building brand identity and an internal culture and can be applied to food and beverage outlets in particular, but also to the service industry in general. The results of this study could be strengthened by conducting further research in other countries and in other service industries, using the research framework. Findings from different countries and industries will contribute to emerging foundations to enhance the current research framework

Key words: brand identity, internal culture, service industry.

Acknowledgement

الْحَمْدُ لِلَّهِ ▪ Alhamdulillah ▪ Praise be to Allah

Thank you to Allah for blessing me with this remarkable passage ☺

My PhD journey has been an interesting academic experience and has undoubtedly been the most challenging task I have undertaken in my life so far, but absolutely worth it. An ode to the never ending quest to decipher the unknown.

First, my utmost gratitude to my supervisors; Associate Professor David Cohen, PhD, and Kamal Ghose, PhD. To Dr Cohen, thank you for your wisdom, patient guidance, and approaches in moulding me into a PhD research student. Your support throughout my time as your student has been one of the reasons I have kept my spirits high. To Dr Ghose, thank you for guiding me from the very first day and open me up to the incredible world of branding, it has been a great discovery for me. I owe both of you a big time. A special thank you to the late Lyn Boddington, PhD, who was with me during the first half of my PhD journey. Your spirit lives with me. I made it Lyn!

Thank you to both of my examiners, Associate Professor Sanjaya S Gaur, PhD, and Associate Professor Colin Jevons, PhD for giving me constructive comments in order to improve this thesis.

To Commerce Faculty team, especially Eileen Seymour and Anne Welford, thank you for making my life easier during difficult time, and also to Bernadette Mani, your support has been great. To Caitriona Cameron, whose support for a non-native English speaker is beyond my imagination, you have made life as a postgraduate student in a foreign country and foreign language possible. My advisor, Siddhartha Samaddar, thank you for your wise words of encouragement everytime I see dead end in my journey. Thank you Lincoln University for giving me a place here. And to my sponsor, Universiti Utara Malaysia, who made it possible for me to be here and do this.

The most important of all, my strongest support, my family, who experienced all of the ups and downs of my research. To my father, Mohd Rashid Arshad, Bapak, whom I always refer to as my 3rd academic advisor, your support has made every effort right from the beginning worth it, thank you for encouraging me to take this path and for being with me all the way. And my mother, Sakinah Fakhurudin, you have always been the best inspiration, never ever ever ever give up you told me years ago, and I never give up Mak. Thank you for telling me that we still share the same skies even when we are 9011.75km apart, and sharing my tears with you has made me a strong girl, just like you Mak.

To my Mak Su, whose silent speak a thousand words, Mak Lang and Pak Lang, thank you for understanding me without me telling. To my sister/best friend, Rozita, you have been tremendously wonderful being with me through every single step of the way, I will be clueless without you, and Balkish, you have been an incredible sister to me, know when to be strict with me and when to cry with me, your witty family jokes has kept me close to home. To my brother in laws, Hasbullah and Rosamin, thank you for constantly tell me to stay cool and take it easy. To my one and only brother, Hakimi and lovely wife Diana, you both are always there for me online reporting what's going on back home and fixing my not so stable emotions. To my fabulous four, Faris, Amir, Ammar, and Adam, you guys rock yet adorable! Love each of you to bits!

I would like to express my profound thanks to every cup of coffee with my witlessly supportive friends in LU, you know who you are. To my friends in Malaysia, heartfelt thanks for every online chat and distance calls, and for believing in my capability even when I am not, and also for keeping me grounded when I ran off tangent. (Mas, ED, Eda, Shake, Jill, Mimi & Patrick, Mimihani, K Nass, Elin, Hanim, K Gee, Abby, Ayu, Suraya, Jue, Minnie, Rina, Ann, Mary, Lise, Shahid, Nitax, Maa Foo Tze, Rom, K Ami, Sam, K Awan, Nadiyah, James, Emy, Nasreen, Belle, Ayako, Shila, Sol, Fid, Wan, Dr Sine and Ishwar)

THANK YOU to everyone who has lived the rocky yet fascinating PhD process with me in this beautiful land of New Zealand, providing unfailing moral support. Love for all ☺

A special dedication goes to my participants who were affected in the Christchurch, September 2009 and February 2010 deadly earthquake, wherever you are now, I pray and hope that you are staying strong, not giving up and doing well in all respects. Kia Kaha!

*Sabrina MR
Lincoln, New Zealand*

Bismillahirrahmanirrahim

In the name of Allah, the beneficent, the merciful

Table of Content

Abstract	2
Acknowledgement	4
Chapter 1 : Introduction.....	13
1.1 Problem statement	15
1.2 Research aim and objectives	18
1.3 Research questions	19
1.4 Significance of the study	19
1.5 Overview of thesis content and structure	19
Chapter 2 : Defining the research context.....	21
2.1 The service industry	22
2.2 Hospitality: the bigger picture	26
2.3 The food and beverage industry: the coffee shop	28
2.4 Reports on New Zealand cafés in the 21 st Century	28
Chapter 3 : Literature Review	33
3.1 Understanding of brand	33
3.1.1 The origin of the brand concept: a history	34
3.1.2 Scholars' definitions of brand	35
3.2 Brand and identity	38
3.3 Brand identity: a dynamic concept	40
3.3.1 Brand identity: brand building	42
3.3.2 Brand identity: brand personality	44
3.3.3 Brand identity: brand equity	45
3.3.4 Brand as a communication medium	49
3.3.5 Brand identity, communication and organisation	51
3.4 Identity	57
3.5 Analysing a brand in creating an identity	58
3.6 Being different	61
3.6.1 The attraction: visual identity	63
3.7 Brand identity: summary	64
3.8 Definition of internal organisational culture	64
3.8.1 Culture	64
3.8.2 Organisational culture	66
3.9 Internal brand culture	73
3.10 Organisational culture and internal marketing	75
3.11 Values	76
3.12 Consumers	78
3.12.1 Consumer culture	78
Chapter 4 : Theoretical and Conceptual Framework.....	82
4.1 Re-statement of the main research problem	82
4.2 Theoretical context	83
4.3 Ideal organisational identity	84
4.4 The brand identity prism	86
4.4.1 The sender	90

4.4.2	The middle section	91
4.4.3	The recipient	93
4.4.4	The brand identity prism and culture	95
4.5	The Onion Model	97
4.6	Culture and identity	101
4.7	Conceptual model	102
4.7.1	Brand identity and internal organisational culture	104
4.7.2	Internal organisational culture and consumers	105
4.7.3	Consumers and brand identity	106
4.8	Summary	107
Chapter 5 : Methods		108
5.1	A description of qualitative research	109
5.2	Phenomenological study	111
5.3	Symbolic interactionism	112
5.4	Ethnographic technique	114
5.5	Case study elements	115
5.6	Research setting	116
5.6.1	Background: the story behind the coffee shop setting	118
5.7	Sampling	120
5.8	Sample size and saturation	121
5.9	Reliability and validity	122
5.10	Conducting the research and analysis	125
5.10.1	Triangulation	125
5.10.2	Semi-structured interviews	126
5.10.3	Field notes	129
5.10.4	Photographs	130
5.10.5	Observation	130
5.10.6	Empirical materials	131
5.11	Data collection	132
5.11.1	Designing the interview framework	132
5.12	Research Field	135
5.12.1	Initial exposure	135
5.12.2	Designing the data collection framework	136
5.12.3	The ICS phase	138
5.13	Coding	139
5.14	Thematic content analysis	140
5.15	Theme formation and the conceptual model	140
5.15.1	Creating a story	140
5.15.2	Metaphors and analogies	141
5.16	Categorisation of the coffee shops	141
5.17	Ethical issues	143
Chapter 6 : Findings and discussion.....		144
6.1	The importance of brand identity building in the food and beverage industry	144
6.1.1	Meaning of brand names	144
6.1.2	Distinctive identification and conception	148
6.1.3	Personality of the leader	154
6.1.4	The 'do it myself' attitude and length of time in the industry	158
6.1.5	Introducing the inventive fresh concept	158

6.1.6	Section Summary	163
6.2	The fundamentals of internal organisational culture within the food and beverage industry	163
6.2.1	Routine operations in a food and beverage outlet	163
6.2.2	Internal marketing	164
6.2.3	Values identified in internal organisational cultures	174
6.2.4	Employee values and motivation	179
6.2.5	Section Summary	183
6.3	The relationship between brand identity building and internal organisational culture within the food and beverage industry	183
6.3.1	Integration: Learning the identity and culture	184
6.3.2	Mapping the brand's identity	185
6.3.3	Route to a unique service organisation: 'A comfortable home'	188
6.3.4	Section Summary	189
Chapter 7 : Conclusion		191
7.1	Restatement of the research background	191
7.1.1	Research Question 1: What is the process of brand identity building in the food and beverage industry?	193
7.1.2	Research Question 2: What are the fundamentals that form the basis of internal organisational culture?	194
7.1.3	Research Question 3: How are internal organisational culture and brand identity building related?	195
7.2	Implications and lessons learned	197
7.2.1	Theoretical and pedagogical contributions	198
7.2.2	Practical contributions	202
7.3	Study limitations	204
7.4	Suggestions for future research	204
Reference		206
Appendices		222
Appendix A : Field Research		222
A.1	Indication of Interview Questions	222
A.2	Summary of steps taken in this study	225
A.3	Field research design	225
Appendix B : Ethics Related Documents		226
B.1	Lincoln University Human Ethic Committee Approval Letter	227
B.2	Interview Information Sheet	228
B.3	Interview Consent Form	229
B.4	Interview Questions	230
Appendix C : Themes and Coding Framework		233
C.1	Codings and themes for findings	233
C.2	Findings : Intelligent concepts	243

Table of Figures

Figure 2.1 : ANZSIC 2006 industry classifications	24
Figure 2.2 : Tourism characteristic businesses	25

Figure 2.3 : Tourism connected industries	25
Figure 2.4 : Six sectors under hospitality	26
Figure 2.5 : A conceptual representation of the hospitality field	27
Figure 2.6 : Cafés/bars in New Zealand from 2002 to 2007	29
Figure 2.7 : Coffee shop outlets in New Zealand, 2002 to 2007	30
Figure 3.1 : Branding irons used at Totara estate.	34
Figure 3.2 : Model of Leadership-Based Brand Building	43
Figure 3.3 : Aaker's Brand Personality Framework	44
Figure 3.4 : Aaker's brand equity model.....	46
Figure 3.5 : Process to strengthen brand equity	48
Figure 3.6 : Traditional communication model	49
Figure 3.7 : Elements in communication.....	50
Figure 3.8 : Communication-based marketing model for managing relationships.....	51
Figure 3.9 : Aaker's brand identity planning model	53
Figure 3.10 : The identity reputation gap model of brand management	54
Figure 3.11 : Corporate branding framework.....	55
Figure 3.12 : Brand identity prism	56
Figure 3.13 : Strategic brand analysis	58
Figure 3.14 : Top five social networking websites and forums.....	59
Figure 3.15 : Strategic brand analysis for Facebook.....	60
Figure 3.16 : Hofstede's definition of culture	65
Figure 3.17 : The levels of culture and their interaction	69
Figure 3.18 : The balance of values and practices for various levels of culture	70
Figure 3.19 : Summary of the definition of organisational culture.....	71
Figure 3.20 : Benchmarking organisational culture	72
Figure 3.21 : Internal brand culture values.....	74
Figure 3.22 : Internal marketing concept	76
Figure 3.23 : Stages in consumer decision making and evaluation of services.....	78
Figure 3.24 : Phases of group development	80
Figure 4.1 : Brand identity prism.....	87
Figure 4.2 : Identity brand prism: picture of sender (top section)	90
Figure 4.3 : Identity brand prism: between sender and recipient.....	92
Figure 4.4 : Identity brand prism: picture of recipient (bottom section).....	94
Figure 4.5 : The onion model	97
Figure 4.6 : Samsung business principles	100
Figure 4.7 : Foundation of the conceptual model	103
Figure 5.1 : Three components of qualitative research	109
Figure 5.2 : Adaptation from Yin's case study method	115
Figure 5.3 : A typical traditional coffee shop in Malaysia.	118
Figure 5.4 : A famous Chinese ethnic coffee shop in Malaysia	119
Figure 5.5 : An urban style coffee shop in Kuala Lumpur, the capital of Malaysia.	119
Figure 5.6 : Coffee shops in Christchurch, New Zealand	120
Figure 5.7 : The different approaches used in this research	126
Figure 5.8 : Breakdown of the mode of interviews	127
Figure 5.9 : An example of a customer loyalty card	132
Figure 5.10 : Design of the preliminary interview questions	133
Figure 5.11 : ICS outlet categorisation.....	142
Figure 6.1 : Strategic brand analysis	149

Figure 6.2 : An enhancement of Aaker and Joachimsthaler's (2000) design of strategic brand analysis	150
Figure 6.3 : ICS 06 floor layout.....	152
Figure 6.4 : Factors to augment coffee shop ambience.....	152
Figure 6.5 : Photos taken from participating outlets.....	153
Figure 6.6 : Construction of a subtle internal culture	156
Figure 6.7 : A table stand on every coffee table in the outlet to demonstrate commitment to fair trade	160
Figure 6.8 : Stand menu on the coffee table	160
Figure 6.9 : A large blackboard on the outlet wall indicating the use of 100% fair trade coffee.....	161
Figure 6.10 : Quadrant of internal culture derived from the owners' perspectives	182
Figure 6.11 : The BAV model.....	186
Figure 6.12 : Mapping the brand identity.....	187
Figure 6.13 : Route to a unique service organisation.....	188
Figure 7.1 : Route to a unique service organisation.....	196
Figure 7.2 : Brand identity prism: added details.....	199
Figure 7.3 : Hofstede's Onion Model: added element	200

List of Tables

Table 3.1 : Aaker's suggestions for creating a strong brand equity.....	47
Table 5.1 : Descriptive and interpretive approaches in this study	112
Table 5.2 : Participants' backgrounds	128
Table 5.3 : Preliminary interview question design	133
Table 6.1 : Participants' strategic brand analysis	149

Chapter 1: Introduction

This study explores and seeks to understand the process of building brand identity and internal organisational culture. It is known from the literature is that the illustration of brand identity is closely related to the image it portrays (de Chernatony, 1999). While this is true, there is more involved in building brand identity in an organisation than merely providing a logo, employees' uniforms, or standardised shop layouts.

Generally, brands comprise characteristics such as names, logos, positioning, brand associations and personality (that can be seen or felt when contact is made). These traits can be characterised as an identity. However, it is more than the characteristics of a brand that form a brand identity; brand identity embraces a richer and more extensive concept (Kapferer, 1997). An internal organisational culture is liable to have an influence in the process of building brand identity (Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000). Therefore, it is imperative to explore knowledge about these two domains (brand identity and internal organisational culture) and how they are related, and seek to understand their existence in a social setting.

While brand is about identity and symbol, culture is more about a way of life, behaviour, and ways of doing things in cohesive groups. Consistency in practising a specific way of life (culture) may transform cohesive groups into a tribe, a community or a nation. Culture includes arts, beliefs, customs, inventions, languages and traditions, all of which can also characterise an organisation and what is commonly called 'organisational culture'.

An organisation with an exclusive characteristic attached to it has the potential to develop into a culture. For example, 3M gives their employees the freedom to exercise their expertise and knowledge in the tasks given to them. Believing that 3M hires the best people, it is therefore best for them to leave employees on their own to show what they are capable of. 3M also encourages their employees to explore and experiment, letting them run with an original idea and listening to them (Collins and Porras, 1994). These values and behaviours shared within the organisation shape the employee's sense of the acceptable limits in the work culture and the values of the organisation (Wilson, 2001). Therefore, understanding and

having the appropriate internal organisational culture is essential for the provision and initiation of positive changes within an organisation, as demonstrated by 3M organisation.

Internal organisational culture plays a critical role in dealing with the internal and external issues of an organisation. Among such issues, building and sustaining the identity of an organisation is of paramount importance, both from within the organisation and from the clientele's point of view. Influences on an internal organisational culture include problem management, principles of the organisation and the way employees communicate with each other. Therefore, it is important to investigate the internal culture of an organisation in order to build a strong brand identity (de Chernatony, 2001). The researcher hopes that the process of exploring and understanding brand identity and internal organisational culture could represent a move beyond passive consumption, where consumers feel associated and appreciated by the brand.

It is important to remember that brand association¹ (Ghodeswar, 2008) has an imperative role in building brand identity. Building brand identity is not only for attracting customers but becoming identifiable to customers at a personal level. This study aims to understand this process and to discover the reality of this situation by adopting an interpretive paradigm, the qualitative method.

This qualitative study adopted semi-structured interviews as the main research approach. It used insights and observations from coffee shop owners as the research context, in order to establish and understand the relationships between brand identity and internal organisational culture. Coffee shops were chosen as the research context due to their high competitiveness in the food and beverage industry. There are a considerable number of coffee shops competing for customer traffic, and gaining a competitive edge in winning customers requires a detailed understanding of the nature of the industry and its competitors. This study aimed to explore internal approaches to building identity with the intention of being a unique outlet or an organisation. This is an imperative study in creating unique and competitive organisation.

¹Brand association, as described by Ghodeswar (2008, p. 5), is made of two levels: a core identity level and an extended level. "Core identity broadly focuses on product attributes, service, user profile, store ambience and product performance. Extended identity is woven around brand identity elements organized into cohesive and meaningful groups that provide brand texture and completeness, and focuses on brand personality, relationship, and strong symbol association."

This study focused on the process of building brand identity and an internal organisational culture. The association of these two elements with the customers was not examined. A conceptual model (based on the literature review), the brand identity prism (Kapferer, 1997) and the onion model (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005), guided the study.

1.1 Problem statement

Previous research in the service industry has focused on customers rather than owners of the business (Butt and Murtaza, 2011; Gopalani and Shick, 2011; Hogan, Almquist and Glynn, 2005; Hu, Kandampully and Juwaheer, 2009; Kumar, Katherine and Parasuraman, 2006; Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml, 1991). While customers are important in the business world, owners are equally important because they create the brand of the organisation (Horan, O'Dwyer and Tiernan, 2011; Ross and Harradine, 2011). Owners are expected to play a leadership role with the brand and to demonstrate that leadership to their employees, thus creating the brand personality (Davies, 2008; Horan, et al. 2011). Davies (2008) proposed that a greater understanding of internal leadership in human resource practices may assist the owner in managing the brand and is responsible for building the desired identity of the brand. This thesis aims to examine the process of building brand identity and recognising the fundamentals of internal organisational culture. The lack of research on owners and leaders of organisations as the creators of brands has called for this study. Building the right distinctiveness into a brand will offer an identity for consumers to relate to; failing to accomplish this may hinder consumers in relating to the brand.

The process of creating a brand identity does not happen overnight and the nature of the brand contributes to the timeline. For example, after being launched in 1998, Google took three years to achieve 100 million searches per day (Vise, 2008, p. 98). Starbucks, in contrast, needed 16 years to expand the brand out of the United States (Starbucks' websites). Google and Starbucks differ in many ways (for example, their service concept for consumers), but both brands need to maintain their identity to ensure their customers identify with them wherever they are.

A brand is capable of communicating from the perspective of the organisation as well as from the perspective of the consumer (Jevons, Gabbott and de Chernatony, 2005, p. 300). A well-designed brand presenting the right identity will be more likely to communicate successfully

to consumers, and between consumers, by word of mouth. Therefore, it is important to ensure that the message is clear and is successfully delivered to the desired recipients.

The increase of research into organisational culture and branding has broadened the scope for researchers to explore these subjects further (Mosley, 2007). Ambler et al. (2002) emphasised the use of correct and consistent definitions of terms used (such as 'brand') to facilitate communication in this research area; confusion in utilising marketing terms might arise when there is no standardised definition for basic terms. Therefore, to have a consistent definition of terms is essential. These authors believed the consistent use of these terms would help marketing teams undertake research in the future.

Research linking organisational culture, brand and value characteristics was undertaken by de Chernatony and Cottam (2008) in the context of a financial service organisation. Their research focused on the interactions between internal cultures and brands that helped the financial service achieve brand success. De Chernatony and Cottam found that organisations found complications in aligning culture and brand. While much effort has been made to address this issue, to change culture is extremely challenging. This research will offer approaches to minimising this issue by linking culture and brand in an internal progression. A systematic approach is required to provide a plan for the linking process.

Burman and Zeplin (2005) suggested that more research should be carried out within organisations and proposed a holistic model for internal branding that focused on brand commitment as the key driver for brand citizenship behaviour. They categorised the three drivers of brand commitment as: 1) compliance; 2) identification with; and 3) internalisation of the brand identity. While emphasis has been given to brand identity, Burmann and Zeplin did not include 'identity' clearly in their holistic internal branding model, but mentioned that it is part of human resource activities within the organisation. Identity has always had a strong link with organisations (Brown, 2001); therefore, it should be among the main elements in strengthening the internal brand of an organisation. It is hoped the current study will be able to emphasis and place identity as the main element to extend the work of Burmann and Zeplin (2005).

Building brand identity in an organisation demands full commitment by all employees (Wheeler, et al. 2006). They report that organisational culture plays an important role in

integrating the perceptions of the employee about corporate brand identity and reducing employee turnover. Their web-based research suggests that practitioners may have the ability to reinforce their organisational culture, strengthen their brand identity internally and create employee loyalty towards the organisation. Experiencing the culture of the organisation assists employees to decide whether they belong to the organisation or not. This indicates the importance of exploring and understanding the organisation from within in order to be competitive and distinctive among related industries. This study used a qualitative approach that offered deeper insights than possible with a web-based survey.

A study of the links between building a brand, organisational culture, human resources and consumer experience was carried out by Mosley (2007). The focus was on the internal organisation and the leader's role in it. Mosley agreed that leadership behaviours are important in building an organisational culture, especially in delivering consistent and distinctive customer service in a service industry. Mosley (2007) noted that in the 1960s, service sectors were quick to adopt brand identity but did not explain further its role along with organisational culture and customers. This leads the current study to explore and understand leaders' views on brand identity building and internal organisational culture. Mosley (2007, p. 132) also stated that "More natural (and authentic) service brand interactions depend on the strength of the organisation's brand ethos and culture."

A more recent study by Ross and Harradine (2011) researched the misalignments between brand identity created by the brand owner and the way consumers perceived it through brand image by utilising the brand identity prism by Kapferer (2008). Findings from Ross and Harradine's (2011) study demonstrated that young consumers' perceptions about brand can create complications during decision making. Complications in decision making among consumers may derive from ambiguous communication sent from the brand owner; this could be due to the brand owner's lack of association with the brand. Brand owners have a clearer perspective of their brand to communicate to consumers if they know their brand well.

Ross and Harradine (2011) encouraged further research using brand identity prism elements to establish different perspectives. The brand identity prism has been addressed previously in various fields such as banking, beer, trade, tea, airlines, celebrities and food markets (Azoulay and Kapferer, 2003; Bech-Larsen, et al. 2007; Janonis, Dovalien, and Virvilait,

2007; Mulky, 2001; Ponnampalnam, 2007; Roy, 2010; Vukasovic, 2009). For this study, the researcher used the brand identity prism as guidance and the food and beverage industry as the research context. This will widen the utilisation of the brand identity prism in marketing research.

The above explanation identifies some of the issues presented in previous research in relation to building brand identity and internal organisational culture. Clearly there is a need to focus on the association between brand identity and internal organisational culture and its potential effect on customer perceptions, particularly in brand identity building opportunities in the food and beverage industry. This study bridges the gap in associating brand identity and internal organisational culture by exploring and understanding these theories using a qualitative approach.

A qualitative approach was adopted in order to gain in-depth insights into the internal culture of organisations and to elucidate how these cultures are related to brand building. The food and beverage industry has not previously been subjected to detailed exploration regarding brand identity building and its relationship to internal organisational culture. Embarking on this study will fill that void.

1.2 Research aim and objectives

The overall aim of the study was to better understand the role of internal organisational culture in brand identity building in the food and beverage industry in particular and the service industry in general. Independent coffee shops in Christchurch, New Zealand were studied to achieve this aim. To achieve the overall aim, the study objectives were:

1. To identify and understand the process of brand identity building in the food and beverage industry;
2. To identify the fundamentals that form the internal culture of organisations;
3. To ascertain the relationship between internal organisational culture and brand identity building.

1.3 Research questions

To develop an understanding of internal organisational culture and its role in building brand identity, three research questions were formed to meet the research aims:

1. What is the process of brand identity building in the food and beverage industry?
2. What are the fundamentals that form the basis of internal organisational culture?
3. How are internal organisational culture and brand identity building related?

1.4 Significance of the study

This thesis focused on mapping a more holistic depiction of internal organisational culture and its role in building brand identity from the perspective of owners in the food and beverage industry. Building a brand identity is fundamental for any service or product (Balmer, 2008, p. 881). In the food and beverage sector, this may be especially important because of the low survival rate in this industry (Sanchez-Gutierrez, et al. 2011). As such, this study will provide an explanation of brand identity building and its relevance to the practice of internal organisational culture. It is hoped that this study will lead to better brand perception and experience due to the making and delivery of brand promises and a comprehensive and appealing brand identity.

1.5 Overview of thesis content and structure

The thesis is organised into eight chapters. The following chapter provides detailed definitions of the terms brand culture, organisational culture and customers that will be used extensively in describing and explaining the research. Chapter 2 also discusses the wider context in which this research is situated (the service industry) and more specifically, the food and beverage industry. The chapter also provides background information and presents research already undertaken in the field of coffee shop businesses. Chapter 3 reviews the relevant literature which enabled the researcher to develop the conceptual model for this study. Chapter 4 presents the theoretical foundation of this study, based on the brand identity prism created by Kapferer (1992), and describes the conceptual model in detail. Chapter 5 outlines the research design and methods used in this study. A detailed explanation and

justification of each qualitative approach is described. This is followed by the analysis chapter (Chapter 6) that elucidates the steps taken in analysing the data from the research field. Chapter 7 presents the research findings and engages in an interpretive discussion about these findings. Chapter 8 concludes the study and indicates the main outcomes generated by, and in response to, the research questions. The limitations of this research and suggestions for future research will also be discussed in the final chapter.

Chapter 2: Defining the research context

The context of this study is the food and beverage industry. Food and beverage businesses are part of the service industry and this study is concerned mainly with their intangible aspects. The field work for this research was undertaken in Christchurch, New Zealand. Owners of selected independent coffee shops in Christchurch were interviewed.

Research has been undertaken in Scotland on consumption and the associated life styles of four branded coffee houses (Scott, 2006). The study, which provided views about the organisation (café) and its customers, added new dimensions to the factors influencing coffee consumption. Coffee lovers in Scotland routinely enjoy a daily cup of coffee with their favourite brand, reflecting their lifestyle status (Scott, 2006). The researcher motivation to choose this particular industry was inspired by the statement:

Whatever the reasons for this growing café culture in Scotland, the American influence cannot be understated. One hundred per cent of respondents in the employee category cited this as an important factor in the current coffee house boom and US media shows were mentioned as important influences. Most importantly, it seems that café culture is not just something that happens in the afternoons (when it is quiet) (Scott, 2006, p. 66).

The food and beverage industry was chosen for this research because of its fast growth (Hudson, 1995) and the intense competition among outlets (Hua and Templeton, 2010). This industry also comprises diverse segments with different types of consumer preferences (DiPietro, Parsa and Gregory, 2011). Therefore, it was important to examine and understand this industry in detail when carrying out this research. Utilising the food and beverage industry as the context for this research is also appropriate for transferability of future research.

The service industry (e.g. the automotive, education, health and medical industries) has its own hierarchical position. One components of the service industry is hospitality, which includes hotels, tourism centres and event management. The food and beverage industry is part of hospitality and independent coffee shops are the focus of this study.

2.1 The service industry

Every customer experiences service. The interactions between the customer and the employee serving the customer are instrumental in creating the experience. Many businesses in the service industry focus on offering an experience rather than just a transaction. Every experience with an individual both inside and outside the organisation is important to building a good reputation. The intangible aspects of service are also essential to ensure continued consumption. This is consistent with the definition of the service industry provided by Reid and Bojanic (2010):

A service is not a physical good; rather it is the performance of an act or a deed. This performance often requires consumers to be present during the production or delivery of the service. Service industries, including hospitality and tourism, are actually selling consumers an experience (p. 45).

Shostack (1977) sought a new approach to defining service by observing the reality of the service industry's requirements and recommending that "the marketer must undertake more initial research that is common in product marketing" (Shostack, 1977, p. 77). More importantly, he argued that it should be research of a different kind than is the case for product marketing (Shostack, 1977, p. 77). Shostack encouraged more dimensional research based on real experience and needs that are relevant to service marketing, thus widening the scope of service industry research (e.g. Bitner, 1990; Grönroos, 1990; Grönroos, 2001; Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1985; Vargo and Lusch, 2004).

Gronroos (2001, p. 151) suggested that service is an interactive process that "leads to an outcome during partly simultaneous provision production and consumption processes". In line with this definition, Kotler, Brown, Adam and Armstrong (2004, p. 396) added that "services involve one party offering to another something that is essentially intangible and where the interaction does not result in the ownership of anything".

Lovelock and Wright (1999, p. 5) provided definitions of service from the owners' and customers' viewpoints: 1) a service is an act or performance for the advantage of the customer, and 2) services are economic activities that create value and benefits for customers

during their purchasing encounters. These two definitions contribute to a deeper understanding of the concept of service; they view service as an act focused on customers' needs and desires. Pleasing the customer is essential to ensuring that good service has been provided (Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry, 1990, p. 7).

The marketing concept has been moving away from a preoccupation with tangible goods for some time, in recognition that services are used every day. From the 1940s until the mid-1980s, before the blooming of the service industry, the focus was on product items (Reid and Bojanic, 2010). The growing importance placed on services is reflected in the observations of Vargo and Lusch (2004) who stated that the direction of current marketing practices should focus more on intangible aspects such as the skills, information, knowledge, interactivity, connectivity and on-going relationships in service marketing.

These intangible aspects are important in service industries and The New Zealand Economic and Financial Overview highlighted the leading role of the service industry in the New Zealand economy. It noted that:

Service industries make up a large proportion of the economy, accounting for over two-thirds of GDP. The sector recorded strong growth between 2000 and 2007, with annual growth averaging 4.0%. As the New Zealand economy entered recession in 2008, services growth slowed, but not to the extent of other sectors in the economy. With the services sector expanding at a more rapid rate than other areas of the economy, the sector has increased its share of GDP from 66% in 2004 to 71% in September 2009. Export-related activities such as tourism and primary sector services inputs play an important part in trends in this sector (The Treasury, 2010, p. 24).

The service industries referred to in the report included financial services firms, infrastructure, transport, tourism, communications and the screen industry.

The Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC) (Statistics, 2008) provides a detailed classification of what types of businesses make up the service industry (refer to Figure 2.1). The food and beverage industry is included as one of the components in service industry. Prior to 1993, Australia and New Zealand had separate

industry classification schemes. ANZSIC replaced its 1993 industry classification in 2006 and identified 19 broad industries to reflect the most recent industry classification in both countries.

	ANZSIC 2006
A	Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing
B	Mining
C	Manufacturing
D	Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services
E	Construction
F	Wholesale Trade
G	Retail Trade
H	Accommodation and Food Services
I	Transport, Postal and Warehousing
J	Information Media and Telecommunications
K	Financial and Insurance Services
L	Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services
M	Professional, Scientific and Technical Services
N	Administrative and Support Services
O	Public Administration and Safety
P	Education and Training
Q	Health Care and Social Assistance
R	Arts and Recreation Services
S	Other Services

Figure 2.1 : ANZSIC 2006 industry classifications

Accommodation and food services are one of the industries classified together in ANZSIC (Line H). These two sectors are very much linked to the tourism industry. Tourism was not mentioned in any classification introduced by ANZSIC because the industry relied significantly on tourists who were frequently involved with the consumption of either the direct or indirect services of businesses (e.g. food and beverage businesses).

Tourism Research Australia (Australia, 2008, pp. 1-2) proposed that tourism be divided into two categories: a tourism characteristic business (Figure 2.2) and a tourism connected

industry (Figure 2.3). Tourism characteristic businesses are those that depend on the tourism industry; tourism connected businesses are independent but related to the tourism industry. Cafés and restaurants (which make up the food and beverage industry) are placed under tourism characteristic businesses. Thus, this has demonstrated the importance of carrying out research within the food and beverage industry due to its immense role in the tourism sector.

Tourism characteristic businesses	ANZSIC Division
Travel agency and tour operator	Transport and storage
Taxi transport	Transport and storage
Air and water transport	Transport and storage
Motor vehicle hiring	Property and business
Accommodation	Accommodation, cafés and restaurants
Cafés and restaurants	Accommodation, cafés and restaurants
Takeaway food retailing	Retail trade

Figure 2.2 : Tourism characteristic businesses

Tourism connected industry	ANZSIC Division
Other road transport	Transport and storage
Rail transport	Transport and storage
Automotive fuel retailing	Retail trade
Ownership of dwellings	Property and business
Food manufacturing	Manufacturing
Beverage manufacturing	Manufacturing
Transport equipment manufacturing	Manufacturing
Other manufacturing	Manufacturing
Other retail trade	Retail trade
Clubs, pubs, taverns & bars	Accommodation, cafés and restaurants
Casinos and other gambling services	Cultural and recreational services
Libraries, museums and arts	Cultural and recreational services
Other entertainment services	Cultural and recreational services
Education	Education

Figure 2.3 : Tourism connected industries

In New Zealand, the wide range of activities that a tourist is able to participate in during their vacation is the main attraction of the tourism industry. However, it takes well-managed organisation within the tourism industry to meet the expectations and perceptions of tourists. This is where hospitality courses are necessary to produce knowledgeable individuals for the industry. A study of small medium enterprises (SMEs) in the hospitality, tourism and leisure sectors suggested that they share certain elements of culture, such as building their future together, organisational learning and collaboration in setting up missions and strategies

(Kyriakidou and Gore, 2005) in order to maintain the expectations of tourists. Preparing individuals for positions in the hospitality industry is important in order to face challenges that may surface (Shostack, 1977). In Section 2.2, the hospitality industry and its relation to the food and beverage industry is discussed.

2.2 Hospitality: the bigger picture

Hospitality is recognised as one of the largest industries worldwide and is closely related to the food and beverage industry (Ottenbacher, Harrington and Parsa, 2009). It is generally acknowledged that foodservice should be included in the hospitality industry (Brotherton, 2006; Hay, 2000; Johns and Howard, 1998; Jones and Lockwood, 1998; Lashley, 2008; Riley, 2005; Wood, 2007). The International Council on Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education (I-CHRIE) (2004), as referred to in Ottenbacher, Harrington and Parsa (2009), stated that there are six sectors under the hospitality umbrella: hotel and lodgings, leisure/sports management, restaurant and foodservice management, travel/tourism management, culinary arts and event management (Figure 2.4).

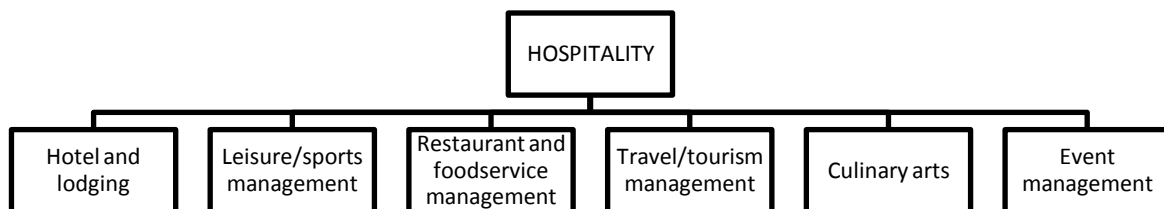


Figure 2.4 : Six sectors under hospitality

Ottenbacher, Harrington and Parsa (2009) produced an in-depth discussion of what should be included in the hospitality industry. From this discussion, they produced a conceptual representation (Figure 2.5) to reduce confusion in the hospitality field. Labelled the “wheel”, it is supported by four external factors (economic and cultural forces, academia, tourism and socio-political forces) which accommodate the six industries making up the hospitality industry (leisure, attractions, travel, conventions, lodging and foodservice). Ottenbacher, Harrington and Parsa (2009) demonstrated the dynamic and interdependent relationships among the industries and offered a specific definition for every industry within the wheel of the foodservice industry. They described the wheel as a “provider of services related to and

including food and beverage products at the location and in the format of customer preference” (p. 278).

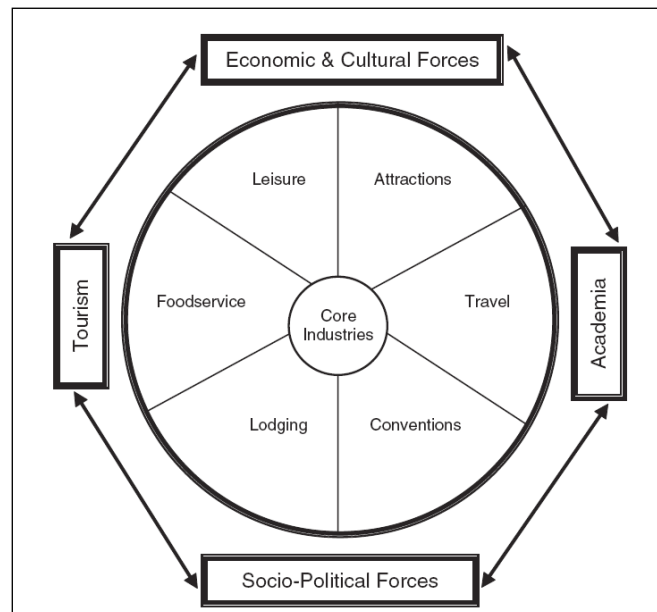


Figure 2.5 : A conceptual representation of the hospitality field

The food and beverage industry is made up of important variables and includes businesses that prepare food for customers (Johns and Howard, 1998; Reynolds, 2004; Riley, 2005). It can be categorised in many ways. Customers might have different ideas about how to group food and beverage outlets compared to how the industry groups them. Price, menus and level of service are among the factors that might influence customers’ perceptions and ideas about food and beverage outlets (Reynolds, 2004).

Walker (2008) groups food and beverage outlets, which he also refers to as restaurants, into seven groups: chains or independent and franchise restaurants, quick service, fast casual, family, casual, fine dining and others. In a broader context, restaurants also include full-service restaurants, fast-food restaurants, food courts, cafeterias, lunch wagons, deli-counters, takeaway food sources (including vending machines), bars and coffee shops that serve food, as well as food service businesses and catering services (Glanz and Hoelscher, 2004, p. 88).

The food and beverage industry, comprising all types of restaurants, offered variation in the selection of food based on consumers’ preferences. A number of studies have been carried out in the United States that demonstrate the importance of this industry. The restaurant

industry is the second largest industry in the United States and has gone through an extraordinary expansion over the last four decades (Chuang and Kleiner, 2003; Madanoglu, Erdem and Gursoy, 2008). This expansion demonstrates that this is a fast growing industry and thus, the owners of restaurants need to be competitive in order to “stay on top” in the industry. This research aimed to provide recommendations to stay competitive to leaders from the restaurant industry or any industry.

Feltenstein (1988) sees the restaurant industry as continuing to be among the best investments in the United States. This is supported by Cetron, DeMicco and Williams (1996), who predicted that in the year 2000 “...over three quarters of a million locations will be offering food service in the United States, with sales of over \$350 billion, over half of all consumer dollars will be spent eating out” (p. 8). Their prediction was largely supported by statistics from the National Restaurant Association in 2001 that revealed an earlier prediction of sales of \$339 billion in the restaurant industry (exceeding by \$49 billion from what the NRA had earlier predicted).

2.3 The food and beverage industry: the coffee shop

There are various types of coffee shop, each with its own unique traits. For this study, independent coffee shops are explored. This research aims to understand how the owners and creators of these coffee shops operate their businesses and how they create and imbue them with special character. Coffee shops, or cafés (Kiefer, 2002), initially served tea, hot chocolate and coffee and, later, added fruit confites, chocolate, ice cream and sorbets. These are among the common expectations of customers about what is offered in a coffee shop.

2.4 Reports on New Zealand cafés in the 21st Century

Reporting on New Zealand, Euromonitor International (2007) noted that from 2002 to 2007, numbers of independent cafés/bars were ten times higher than numbers of franchise² cafés/bars. It is important to have knowledge on the growth of franchise outlets, together with independent outlets in order to have a clearer view of the numbers of cafes and bars in New

² Franchise outlets were included in this section to provide a richer, more inclusive overview of the cafés, bars and coffee shops in New Zealand from the year 2002 to 2007.

Zealand. The independent and chained cafés/bars were experiencing positive growth (Figure 2.7).

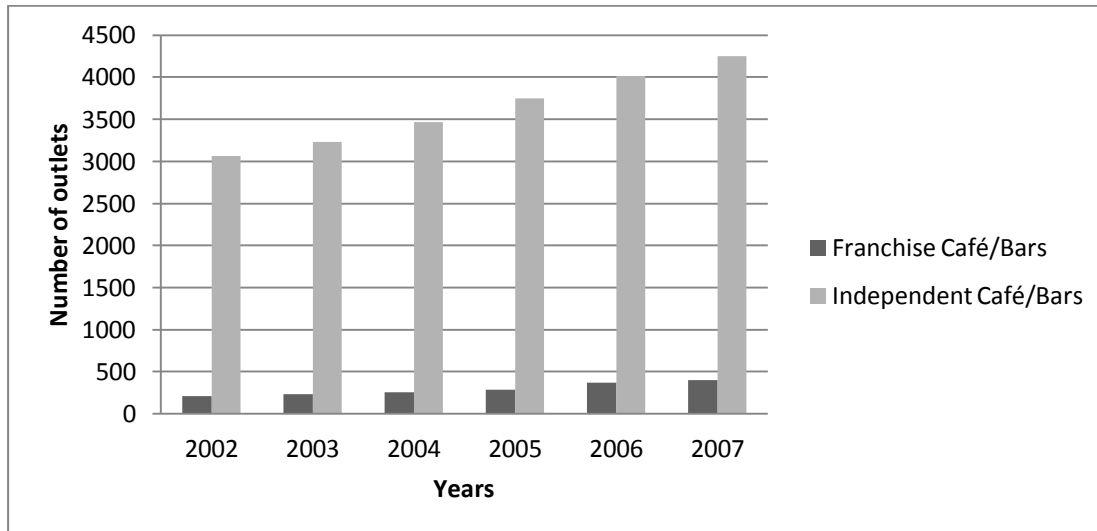


Figure 2.6 : Cafés/bars in New Zealand from 2002 to 2007

As can be seen in Figure 2.6 above, a substantial gap between franchise café and independent café outlets in New Zealand persists, regardless of the growth each year. This escalation is predicted to continue up to 2012. This growth is indicative of New Zealanders' preference for cafés and bars as sites of socialisation and entertainment. This has implications for this study in that the independent cafés and bars are in demand and extensively recognised by consumers. Thus, the focus of this research should also include factors in the growth of independent cafés in New Zealand.

The fastest growth in food and beverage outlets in New Zealand is in the coffee shop cluster. Coffee shops in New Zealand have emerged in line with the growth of the food and beverage industry. Figure 2.8 shows the escalating numbers of coffee franchise and independent coffee shops in New Zealand between 2002 and 2007 (Euromonitor, 2008).

The increase in coffee shop outlets (as shown in Figures 2.7 and 2.8) follows the trend for the food and beverage industry in New Zealand generally. Among the reasons could be the role of consumers' experience, the diversity among the outlets, or the stability of the economy. These reasons play important roles in setting the trend of an industry; however, the fast growth of these coffee shops has also contributed to intense competition among owners.

Therefore, this study aims to explore this industry to examine the process needed in order to be a competitive outlet.

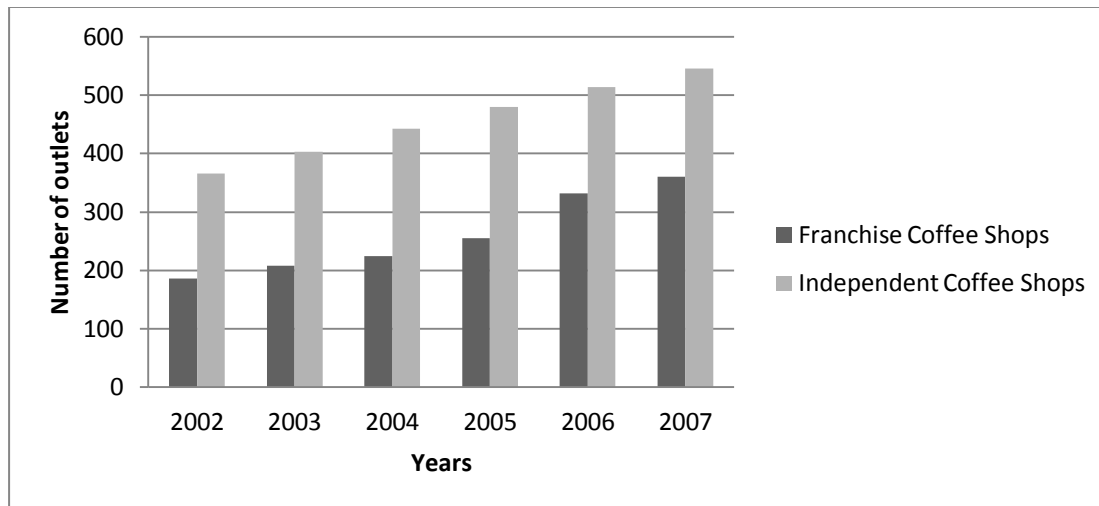


Figure 2.7 : Coffee shop outlets in New Zealand, 2002 to 2007

This chapter has established the research context in relation to the food and beverage industry, nationally and internationally. The following chapter will review the literature on branding, brand identity, internal organisational culture and the related matters of definitions, usage and practice.

In a study of 350 service industries in New Zealand, Gray et al. (2003) reported that, “... branding was considered to be slightly less relevant to firm performance, with a correspondingly lower level of adoption of best practice” (p.7). Recommendations from Gray et al. about branding issues included emphasising the improvement of internal operations and the need to have some form of innovative mechanism. These two recommendations are related to the aims of this study since the researcher will explore the impact of the diverse actions that occur within an organisation. Internal operations and innovative mechanisms are required to strengthen an organisation’s position among its competitors through its consistency in dealing with consumers.

Research on various issues relevant to the food and beverage industry has already been carried out around the world (Cappelli and Hamori, 2008; Lee and Hing, 1995; Mohsin, 2006; Scott, 2006; Yu-Ning, Hsiao and Yang, 2009). More than a decade ago, Hing and Lee (1995) discussed the application of service quality principles in the restaurant (food and

beverage) industry and emphasised the strong competition that occurs among restaurants. They found that franchise restaurants gain competitive benefit through the system that has been laid out for them, while independent restaurants strive to be different and unique in the industry. This has provided a strong indication to focus on independent restaurants for the current research.

A study carried out by Cappelli and Hamori (2008) on food and beverage outlets in the United States compared the performance of franchise operations with non-franchise operations. Cappelli and Hamori suggested that more research should be carried out in the food and beverage industry with a focus on practices and training in franchises. They also noted a lack of research on the performance of franchise and non-franchise outlets in the food and beverage industry.

The current study suggests that an independent restaurant needs to be unique in order for it to be competitive with the franchise industry. Thus, in this study, it is hoped that utilising the theory of brand identity and internal organisational culture may assist owners in enhancing their approach in becoming active players and a resilient competitor in their respective industries.

An interesting quantitative study of cafés in Taiwan showed that customers generally had a positive response to cultural values (Yu-Ning, et al., 2009). That study explored consumer behaviour and responses to cultural values that surfaced from the café experience, but not from the view point of the café owners. Among the cultural values examined were universal love, hedonism, self-control, self-realization, stimulation, customs and habits, and desires. The researcher used these cultural values as elements to observe to gain more in-depth information from the owners' points of view. This allowed the researcher to be more attentive during field research. Cultural values have a strong role in moulding an organisational culture (Hatch, 1993), which is one focus of this research.

In summary, an appropriate research context is necessary to provide the best platform for research and to achieve the research objective. The food and beverage industry was chosen mainly because of its fast growth and intense competition, which will provide the researcher

with reliable data to explore the process of creating a competitive organisation through the lenses of brand identity building and internal organisational culture.

Chapter 3: Literature Review

A literature review was undertaken to determine whether the research questions posed in this study had been previously addressed. The aim of the review was to augment understanding of brand identity and internal organisational culture and to identify where research is absent; this research will propose an explanation for the gap.

This research comprises several concepts to answer the research questions. These concepts are interrelated. While the literature review might not be able to do justice to the respected scholars on what has been discussed from each area, the researcher aims to connect the concepts in this thesis by presenting the literature that best explains each of its roles. This chapter will provide the basis of what will be discussed in this thesis.

Branding is a large concept that needs to be comprehensively explained in order to identify its relationship to brand identity. This thesis has put forward attributes related to brand identity in order to understand and be aware of what has been discussed among scholars on this subject within the scope of this thesis. While brand identity alone may provide a strong foundation for a brand to establish itself, it is proposed that, with the integration of internal organisational culture into the concept of brand identity, the organisation is more likely to position itself distinctively among both customers and competitors.

3.1 Understanding of brand

The concept of brand encompasses an extensive range of subject matter related to the development, maintenance and improvement of the brand. The rationalisation of brand management by marketing scholars (Aaker, 1996; Kapferer, 2008; Keller, 2008; VanAuken, 2002) is important in order to lessen misunderstandings about brand architecture. The numerous brand terms used in research have caused confusion among researchers, practitioners and the public. Therefore, the need for a common understanding of the term “brand” is critical.

3.1.1 The origin of the brand concept: a history

The word brand is from the German 'brandr', 'to burn with a hot iron' (Hornby, 2005, p. 134). A unique mark is used to brand farm animals when farmers want to set their animals apart from others. Farmers generally use three ways to signify their branding: figures, numbers or letters, with the brands being read from left to right, from top to bottom or from outside in (Rozin, 2002, p. 187). An animal can be identified from the unique mark made on its body by the branding iron, showing its identity and ownership. The use of animal branding as identification started as early as 2000 BC in Egypt. The brand concept then extended to a Spanish family who used the branding of letters and symbols as a family crest. According to Rozin (2002, p. 187), this could be the start of expanding the concept of branding to a wider range of areas.

In New Zealand, the same concept of branding was introduced in the 1850s in the Totara Estate. According to the New Zealand Historic Places Trust (2009) website, Totara Estate, south of Oamaru is known as the birthplace of the frozen meat industry in 1882 and was the first place to export its meat to the outside world. The meat was processed and prepared at the Totara Estate before being exported to Great Britain. New Zealand adopted the iron branding concept to indicate ownership of the meat produced. Figure 3.1 shows the branding irons used by Totara Estate on its meat. Within the first ten years of its operation, Totara Estate had made considerable progress in establishing its meats worldwide and also in building its identity in the industry.



Figure 3.1 : Branding irons used at Totara estate.

At the International Sheep Meat Forum in Brussels, Belgium on the 8th and 9th October 2009, Mike Petersen, Meat and Wool New Zealand chairman, said that New Zealand lamb's brand presence in European markets continued to be strong and it was also the only imported

meat on supermarket shelves branded with the name of a country. This has ensured the strong brand identity and sustainability of New Zealand meats throughout the decades.

Use of the word 'brand' was first noted in 1552 and was followed by the first definition of the word “marketing” in the year 1561, as found by the Oxford Dictionary lexicographers (Jevons, 2005). The word brand expanded in the 1950s when the advertising world began to flourish. Towards the end of the nineteenth century, the development of the transportation system in America aided the distribution of manufacturers’ brands, which verified that an appropriate distribution system was essential to building strong brands (Farquhar, 1994). The year of the brand was commemorated in 1988 (Macrae and Uncles, 1997), two years after the introduction of the brand identity concept, which was mentioned for the first time in 1986 in Europe by Kapferer (Janonis et al., 2007). This was followed by the emergence of other brand concepts such as brand knowledge (Keller, 1993) and brand equity (Aaker, 1996).

Regardless of the vast expansion of the word brand, the concept remains the same, denoting ownership of a product or a service (Klaus and Maklan, 2007). It is difficult to find any commercial product or service that does not have a brand. Manufacturers and owners are willing to invest huge amounts of money to grow their brands and maintain brand advantage (Ranjan, 2003).

3.1.2 Scholars’ definitions of brand

“Defining a brand is a struggle,” (Blois, 2000, p. 483). There have been many attempts to define the word. Barlow and Stewart (2004, p. 1) give a very simple and clear definition of brand as “a unique identity”. According to the American Marketing Association (AMA), a brand is a “name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of the competition” (Keller, 2008, p. 2). Davis (2010) provided an updated brand definition by the American Marketing Association (AMA);

A brand is a customer experience represented by a collection of images and ideas; often, it refers to a symbol such as a name, logo, slogan and design scheme. Brand recognition and other reactions are created by the accumulation of experiences with the specific

product or service, both directly relating to its use, and through the influence of advertising, design and media commentary.

An additional definition to brand is:

A brand often includes an explicit logo, fonts, colour, schemes, symbols, sound, which may be developed to represent implicit values, ideas, and even personality (p. 10).

The updated definition provided by the AMA incorporates the influence of the media (media commentary) into the definition of brand as a result of experiences with specific products or services, replacing the term brand differentiation with brand recognition. However, leaving out an important element in a definition such as brand differentiation could lose the essence of the brand. Brand recognition began with the existence of brand differentiation. Brand, in general, is recognised through its distinctive identity in making it different from other brands; therefore, brand differentiation is an important component that should be included in the definition.

To be different is fundamental in making a product or service appeal to consumers. A brand is likely to resonate more with consumers if it has an identification mark, symbol, word(s) or a combination of these to distinguish its product or service from other companies, thereby creating a unique identity (Imber and Toffler, 2000; Kotler, 1997). Ghodeswar (2008) also noted that a brand can be differentiated from its competitors through a distinguishing name or symbol. Giving an identity to a product or service will create clearly identifiable brands that will benefit both managers and consumers (Jevons, 2005).

One of the earliest definitions of brand comes from Gardner and Levy (1955), as cited in Davis (2007, p. 8). These researchers viewed brand as a meaningful symbol with stories to tell rather than just a way to distinguish one manufacturer from another:

... a brand is more than a label employed to differentiate among manufacturers of a product. It is a complex symbol that represents a variety of ideas and attributes. It tells the consumer many things not only by the way it sounds (and its literal meaning if it has one) but, more importantly, via the body of associations it has built up and acquired as a public object over a period of time (p. 35).

De Chernatony and Riley (1998) brought a different dimension to brand by describing the branding process. They combined eight elements they believed were important in branding: functional capability, symbolic feature, service, name, ownership, notation, legal protection, reduction of risk, and strategic direction.

Brands start life with distinctive names, possibly endorsed by the corporate reputation or sign of ownership. The brand's functional capabilities become recognized and, to build a relationship with consumers, the service component becomes important. Legal protection is used to deter competitive infringement, but the symbolic feature gives the brand a personality, making it more difficult to copy. As consumer confidence increases, through skilful presentation as a risk reducer, the brand becomes associated with unique added values and becomes an effective shorthand notation representing a few high quality pieces of information facilitating rapid consumer choice (p. 3).

The process described by de Chernatony and Riley (1998) summarises what brand is all about: to be different, to have ownership rights and to gain customers' confidence in their product or service. Wagner and Peters (2009) believed that "the most important function of a brand is to protect the trademark owners from imitation". A brand is an asset to the organisation it belongs to, hence, the need to protect the brand from illegal activities such as imitation, copying and use without copyright.

Preventing a brand from being imitated and customers from being deceived is a complex task. Providing brand knowledge and brand awareness to customers will help them in making a choice without being manipulated. This is important because the first impression and interaction that a customer has with a product or service will largely determine their perceptions. The customers' perceptions develop from their experience and this happens in every interaction with the brand (Hogan et al., 2005).

Besides playing an important role in engaging the consumer market, a brand also plays a part in the product and financial markets (Keller and Lehmann, 2006). Therefore, a brand is more than just a product or service, because its unique dimensions are designed to satisfy the customers' needs (Keller, 2008).

Summarising the literature on branding and for the purpose of this thesis, a brand will be understood as a unique identity, given specifically to a product or a service, communicated to consumers in the form of a term, symbol, design, sound, experience, or a combination of these. When a brand communicates to the customers it sends a promise of what will be delivered or experienced. Like a person, a brand must have an identity and it should be clearly revealed.

3.2 Brand and identity

The brand of a product or service should be identifiable by its own unique attributes distinguishing it from other brands. Microsoft, Google, Toyota, All Blacks, Nike and Sony are among the well-known brands found all over the world. People from most countries will know what Microsoft is about, what to expect from a Starbucks café, and how Google functions. These are among the strong brands that have an enormous impact on consumers and the general public. Consumers who have a positive initial experience with these brands will keep coming back to experience the unique identity of the product or service. Aaker (1996) defines brand identity as:

... a unique set of brand associations that the brand strategist aspires to create or maintain. These associations represent what the brand stands for and imply a promise to customers from the organisation members. Brand identity should help establish a relationship between the brand and the customer by generating a value proposition involving functional, emotional, or self-expressive benefits (p. 68).

In order to be 'at the top', a brand must have an identity. Brand image, brand positioning and personality are part of brand identity. Scholars have produced models relating to brand identity such as the Brand Personality Dimensions model developed by Aaker (1997), the Brand Equity Model developed by Aaker (1996) and the brand identity prism developed by Kapferer (1992). These models have been used in branding research for a variety of purposes. Brand identity relies on a process of building unique traits for the product or service, a process scholars refer to as brand building. Therefore, as well as brand identity, brand building matters will be discussed as part of the theoretical background for this

research. The brand identity prism by Kapferer (2008) provided the base for a brand to gauge its identity. The brand identity prism takes the approach of equating a brand with a person. The following paragraphs demonstrate the various uses of the brand identity prism in past research.

Janonis et al. (2007) used the prism as the basis for conducting an empirical study on the relationship between brand identity and brand image. They summarise the brand identity prism as a live system that establishes a development path for the brand and also, as the platform for consumers' interpretations of the brand's image. Janonis et al. emphasise that identity should be the focus of building a brand. The multidimensional structure of the brand identity prism provides a strong base from which to explore how the brand positions itself and where it is going. The identity associates with customers on a personal level; customers like to bond themselves with selected brands to define themselves, and this most likely also defines the position of the brand (Wallström et al., 2008). Thus, identity of a brand plays an important role in positioning a brand.

The brand identity prism was also used in a study of a non-alcoholic malt beer (Bech-Larsen et al., 2007). The study was on a brand that developed strongly with its consumers. Bech-Larsen et al. conducted semi-structured interviews with consumers and found they were able to relate their perception and experiences to the brand identity presented by the non-alcoholic malt beer. This is mainly because the product is a preferred beverage of Afro-Caribbean consumers involved in the study. Although this may be true when undertaking research with strict purposive sampling, the study also reported that when branding products have an ethnic element attached, marketers may gain advantage from a conceptualisation of brand identity as a co-constructive process between the brand creator and the consumer. A similar approach has been used in research on brands such as Ralph Lauren and Lacoste (Kapferer, 2008).

Another example is Kingfisher Airlines, established in 2003. Kingfisher started as a brand of beer in India and diversified into an airline brand. Kingfisher maintained its consistency in managing the brand, although airlines and beer are two very different industries. An intricate interweaving of the Kingfisher brand has demonstrated the importance of having a strong underlying foundation. Ponnampaloor (2007) has used the brand identity prism to describe the branding framework of Kingfisher's dual products. The brand identity prism provides a

useful foundation to preserve Kingfisher's brand consistency. Ponnamm found that the Kingfisher brand is capable of communicating about their product and service to consumers by using the prism.

A recent study by Ross and Harradine (2011) focused on the misalignment between the identity created by the brand owner and the way consumers perceived it as a brand image. They found that young consumers' perceptions of a brand could create barriers during decision making, as indicated by the relationship facet from the brand identity prism that will be presented in Chapter 4. This is because consumers are inclined to project their identity through their clothing brand. Therefore, in order to avoid barriers and confusion when sending messages to consumers, a strong unambiguous brand identity should help reduce confusion among consumers (Ghodeswar, 2008).

Consumers' interpretations of the brand are important (Bech-Larsen et al., 2007). Shultz (2002) was a strong believer that consumers own the brand; later he admitted he was wrong. Due to the process of brand building, understanding the brand, maintaining the brand and protecting the brand, Schultz (2002) believed that customers do not own the brand, the organisation does. Schultz also stated that the brand should start from the inside of the organisation and end with the customers; this is the direction taken by the present research, to let the inside of the organisation be seen outside of it by customers and the general public. Similar to the concept of externalisation and internalisation of a brand by Kapferer (2008), a brand should be a balance of the brand owner's and consumers' voices. This is relevant in delivering the right message from the brand to the consumers.

3.3 Brand identity: a dynamic concept

The concept of brand identity has been researched in some depth (de Chernatony, 1999; de Chernatony and Harris, 2000; First and Khatriwal, 2008; Keller, 2001; Lory and McCalman, 2002; Nandan, 2005; Roy and Banerjee, 2007; Wesley et al., 2006). Kapferer (2004) argued that having an identity indicates "being your true self, driven by a personal goal that is both different from others' and resistant to change" (p. 96). Harley Davidson, for example, has a powerful and well-established brand identity that creates its own community (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001). The Harley Davidson brand represents "a unique light, with a great respect

and distinction”, along with an image of “power, rebellion and classic style in any American that hears it as well as many people worldwide, witnessing to the strength of Harley Davidson brand” (Pugliese and Cagan, 2002, p. 141).

Konecnik and Go (2007) give new insights into the concept of brand identity. They assert that brand identity states what the brand aspires to be. A successful brand:

- i. Constitutes a set of associations that the brand strategist seeks to create and maintain.
- ii. Represents a vision of how a particular brand should be perceived by its target audience.
- iii. Establishes a relationship between a particular brand and its clientele by generating a value proposition potentially either involving benefits or providing credibility, which endorses the brand in question (p. 179).

In accepting Konecnik and Go’s insights, it appears likely that a better understanding of the brand identity concept will be communicated to potential customers. The brand of a product or service needs to have its own unique identity that makes it stand out and be recognisable by its customers. Kapferer (1997) believes that a brand with identity is more likely to survive in the fast-growing marketing industry since it can connect better with customers.

Biszants (2005) agrees that identity is important in creating and maintaining a brand. The process of creating and maintaining a brand needs to be systematically planned. Brand identities are built using two elements: specialisation and authority (Kitchen and Schultz, 2003). Specialisation is what the organisation does best and what makes it different from other organisations in moulding the brand and its identity. The second element, authority, is about the basis of the identity and encompasses dimensions such as quality, leadership and trustworthiness among individuals in the organisation. It is essential for a brand to have both virtues (specialisation and authority) to grow and compete with existing brands. This research focuses on the concept of identity creation, specialisation and authority among the essential elements that are needed to distinguish an organisation. Integrating these two elements together provides a complete guide to building a unique organisation.

More criteria for building a brand have been suggested by Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000 p. 40), who claim that “brand identity needs to resonate with customers, differentiate the brand from competitors and represent what the organisation can and will do over time.” This researcher agrees with Aaker and Joachimsthaler that it is important to identify the customers’ desires and what competitors are doing. Customers’ desires and competitor organisations are among the issues observed during this project’s field study, which will be discussed later in this thesis.

3.3.1 Brand identity: brand building

“A set of brand associations enable a brand to develop a rich and clear brand identity,” (Ghodeswar, 2008, p. 5). Brand building relates to brand identity in many ways. For example, a new brand in the market depends mostly on identity creation. Brand identity is strongly related to consumer perception and visual elements (including brand names, logos /symbols, typeface, colours, shapes and product benefit descriptions used in advertising, package, product identification, publications, letterheads and websites), either real or imagined (Zaichkowsky, 2010, p. 549). Therefore, creating a distinctive brand is necessary to acquire customers’ attention.

In the article, “*Who owns the brand?*” Shultz (2002) suggests that building a brand should start internally before it is released to the public. The members of the organisation should be provided with clear brand knowledge in order to communicate the brand to the public. Vallaster and de Chernatony (2005) agree. “The process of internal brand building advances when a clear brand vision creates tension between the actual and ideal work setting, forcing people to work together to reduce this gap” (p. 187). They introduced the Model of Leadership-Based Brand Building (Figure 3.2) to demonstrate how leadership can influence the process of brand building internally to ensure successful service brands. This process starts with leadership and depends on having a brand vision and social interaction (verbal and non-verbal), followed by sending the message out and its relationship to brand behaviour.

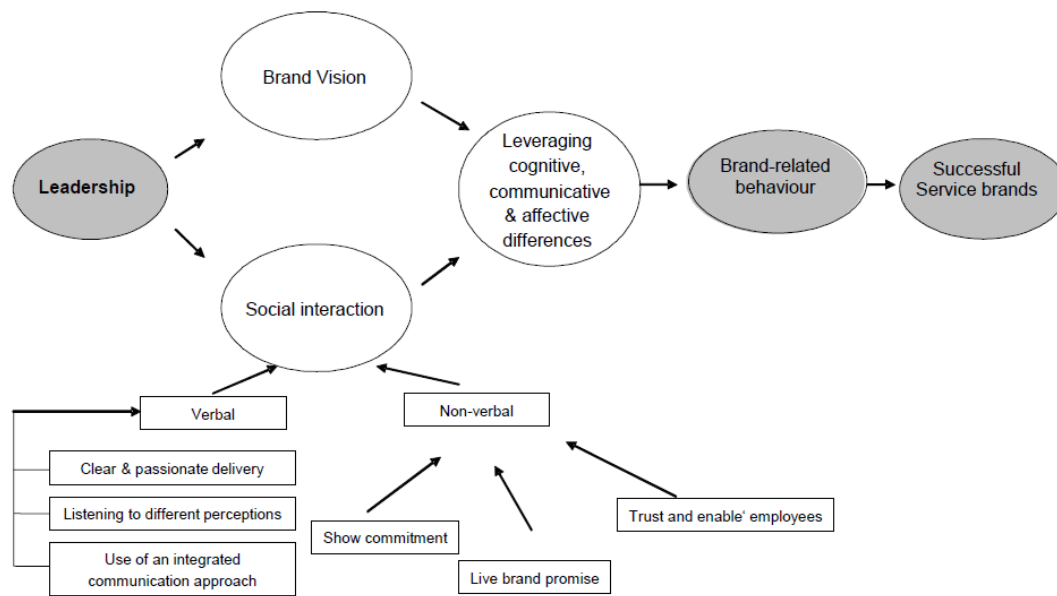


Figure 3.2 : Model of Leadership-Based Brand Building

Vallaster and de Chernatony's (2005) research showed that brand behaviour has a strong association with the leadership of the brand creator; this will be examined during the field research. Leadership is a "device" that mediates between people, thus, it emerges "as the act of recognising and being recognized, as well as the act of gaining necessary credibility to perform as a leader" (Karp and Thomas, 2009, p. 892). Vallaster and de Chernatony's (2005) leadership-based brand building model proposes two important factors that influence internal branding process; 1) development and communication of a coherent clear brand vision, and 2) the brand's consistent social interaction with the employees. These two factors are essential in carrying out this study in order to discover the organisation's internal branding process.

Ambler (2002), however, advocates a different starting point in the building of a brand. Many scholars (Burman and Zeplin, 2005; Schultz, 2002; Vallaster and de Chernatony, 2005) suggest that brand building should start within the organisation, but Ambler suggests that it has to be formed from the consumers' expectations in order to meet their demands. Both views are right based on the context of the situation. For example, as shown in the brand identity prism model (Kapferer 1997, 2004, 2008), a brand can be simultaneously constructed internally (within an organisation) and externally (by consumers), thus it has a sender (the organisation) and a receiver (the customers) to demonstrate the process of building a brand.

This process could be time consuming (Ghodeswar, 2008) as it involves a lot of internal and external processes. Schultz (2001) described the process of branding as something that does not happen overnight, but which needs to be nurtured over time:

Branding isn't rocket science, but it isn't something done on the spur of the moment or by a committee in one afternoon. Most of all it isn't done by communication alone. Brands are built by customer and stakeholder experience. Communication is just one of those experiences (p. 9).

3.3.2 Brand identity: brand personality

Aaker (1997) notes that “consumers are more likely to use a brand to express how they are different from members of their in-group” (p. 355). The Brand Personality Dimension Model (Figure 3.3) concludes that the brand project itself is like a person with a unique personality. Aaker (1997) uses a brand personality framework (Figure 3.3) to describe a brand with five human-like traits: sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness. The model demonstrates how brand personality wants to be seen by the consumers with its five dimensions and fifteen facets.

BRAND PERSONALITY	Sincerity	Down to earth, honest, wholesome, cheerful
	Excitement	Daring, spirited, imaginative, up-to-date
	Competence	Reliable, intelligent, successful
	Sophistication	Upper class, charming
	Ruggedness	Outdoors, tough

Figure 3.3 : Aaker's Brand Personality Framework

Brand personality is part of brand identity. There are other factors in branding such as brand equity, brand image and brand knowledge that contribute to brand identity that are not presented in this model. Brand personality has a tendency to be muddled when the brand comprises many characteristics (Till and Heckler, 2009). According to Till and Heckler, “you instil the brand [personality] with characteristics, carefully defined, that bring the brand to life” (pp. 26-27). Research on brand personality has been carried out from the customers' perspectives (Lee and Rhee, 2008). Consider also that the brand's personality is not identical

to a consumer's personality. Just because the customers are sophisticated, intelligent and refined does not mean that the brand's personality must also be. This is reflected in Urde's (1999) view on brand personality:

Mottoes like 'the customer is always right' and 'everything for the customer' are called into question. Of course, the wants and needs of customers are not ignored, but they are not allowed to unilaterally steer the development of the brand and determine its identity (p. 122).

The statements above contradict other leading scholars who suggest that brand personality and consumer personality are interrelated in the evolution of brand (McEnally and de Chernatony, 1999), in understanding the symbolic use of brand (Aaker, 1997), in the application of the brand (Keller and Richey, 2006) and in achieving consumer aspiration and identity (Ortiz and Harrison, 2011). Thus, this study aimed to address this issue by focusing on the brand internally, that is, through the perspective of the brand creators and their expectation of the customers. This approach hoped to diminish the issue of relying overly on customers' perspective in building the brand identity.

3.3.3 Brand identity: brand equity

Brand equity plays a large part in a brand architecture as well as brand identity. Brand equity has been defined in many ways according to the context of research (Keller, 1993) and has stimulated a growing interest in recent years (Park and Srinivasan, 1994). Brand equity is defined as the added value endowed by the brand to the product (Davis, 2007; Farquhar, 1989; Keller, 1993; Krishnan and Hartline, 2001; Myers, 2003; Park and Srinivasan, 1994). The concept of brand equity was expanded by Aaker (1991) through his brand equity model that identified five elements offering value to customers and firms (Figure 3.4).

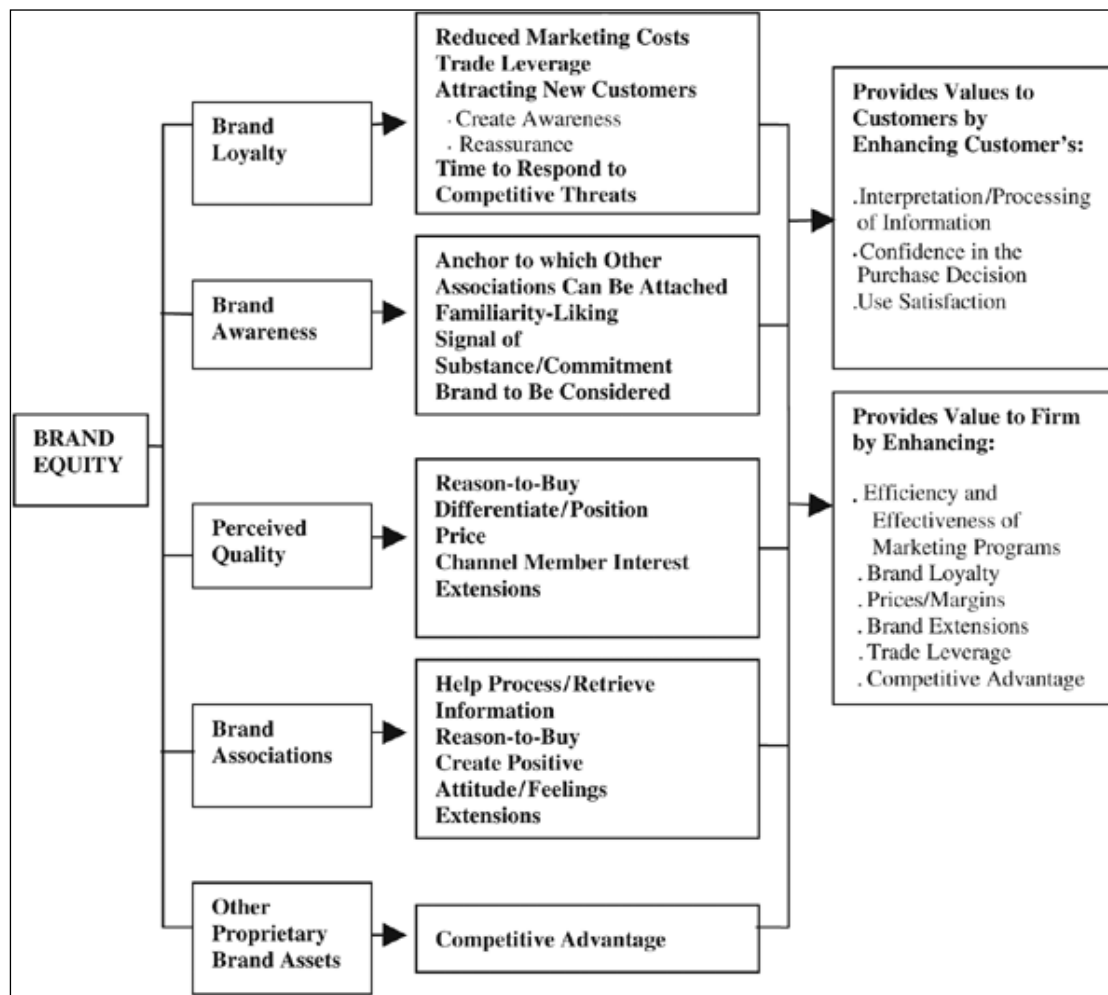


Figure 3.4 : Aaker's brand equity model

Aaker (1992) also suggested that brand equity helps to provide brand awareness, perceived quality and a strong personality. Table 3.1 provides a summary of suggestions that can be helpful in building strong brand equity.

Table 3.1 : Aaker's suggestions for creating a strong brand equity

Clear identity	To build a strong and consistent identity
Corporate brand	To create a corporate brand to assist the process of brand building
Consistent communication	To always provide consistent information to the media and potential customers
Customer relationships	To create a strong bond with the customer is essential. A strong, successful brand can allow their customers to express their personalities through the brand
Symbol and slogan	Visual imagery and a catchy slogan are important in providing the image of the brand. A distinguishing symbol or slogan will have a huge impact on customers

Each of the suggestions above is interrelated to each another. For example, a clear identity of a brand is more likely to have a positive relation to customer relationships. Aaker's (1992) suggestions also have a strong association with the scope of this study, where the integration of identity, brand, communication, customer relationships and visuals are among the elements investigated. Hence, it is essential to address Aaker's view on brand equity to reinforce the fundamentals of this study.

Brand equity can be divided into two parts: the value of a brand (accounting purposes) and the marketing strategy used to educate consumers in relation to what they need to know about the brand (Keller, 1993). This research will focus on the second part of brand equity: brand knowledge. Besides providing information about a brand, brand equity is important for marketing design from a financial, organisational and consumer behaviour perspective (Davis, 2007; Keller and Lehmann, 2006). A model to strengthen brand equity was introduced by de Chernatony (2001, p. 36) to encourage a combined approach to building and sustaining a brand (Figure 3.5).

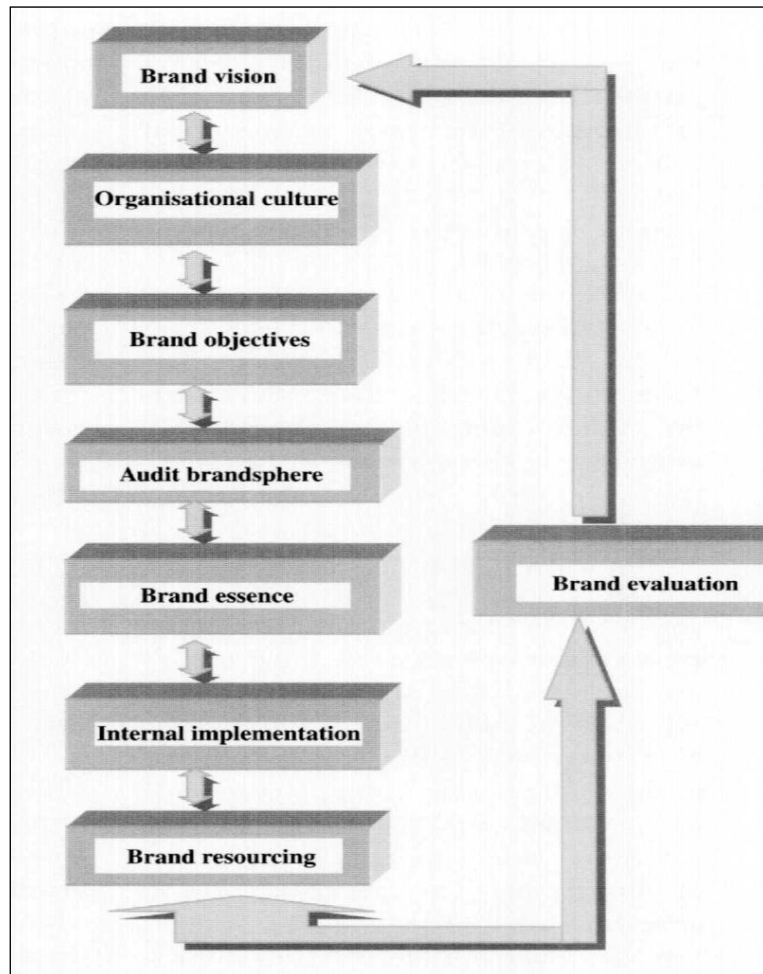


Figure 3.5 : Process to strengthen brand equity

Figure 3.5 shows the cycle of brand building. In the paper, *A model for strategically building brands*, de Chernatony (2001) compiled a number of relevant models, including a brand vision model, a culture model and a brand essence model as references in building a brand. This model presented a systematic combination of models (theories) in building a stronger brand. The combination was arranged as a guide for brand creators to consider when building a brand. The circular process as shown in this model suggests that brand creators need to continuously review the position of their brand in order to stay competitive in the industry.

De Chernatony (2001) put forward a complex model for organisations to consider and “used to fine tune the brand, and ultimately grow the brand's equity” (p. 43). While this model might be useful and appropriate for large organisations, it might not be practical for small medium enterprise (SMEs). Thus, this research proposed a framework that consists of related

features that are appropriate for SMEs, such as brand identity, organisational culture and internal processes.

3.3.4 Brand as a communication medium

Communication is a central, key element in reflecting brand identity, as it delivers the message to people. According to Madhavaram et al. (2005), the brand and its organisation should concentrate on communicating the brand identity within the organisation, in order to be able to communicate effectively with customers. Brands communicate with customers by sending messages that are received and interpreted by the customers. What happens after determines whether the communication has accomplished its aim or not. This scenario demonstrates the traditional communication model (Figure 3.6). Traditional communication theory (Lasswell, 1948) provides the fundamentals in regard to getting the message across to the target audience in any field, including numerous communication models in the marketing field itself.

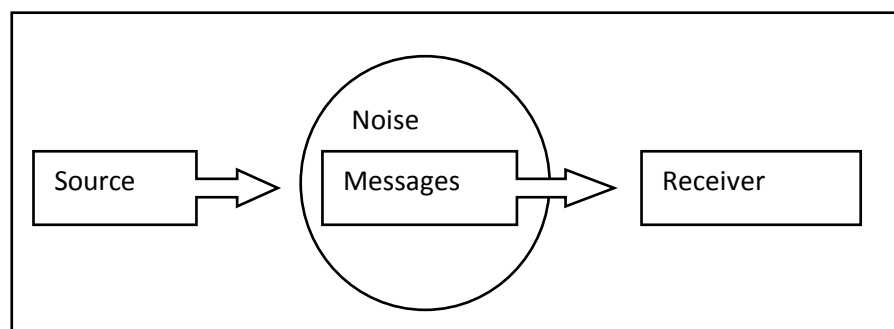


Figure 3.6 : Traditional communication model

Expanding on Lasswell's (1948) traditional communication model, Duncan and Moriarty (1998, p. 9) discussed in detail the significance of communication in determining a good relationship. Communication, according to Barnlund and Mortensen (1973, p. 28), requires three elements: the source, the message and the destination (Figure 3.7). The communication could be in any form, verbal or visual. The sender needs a medium in order to send the message to the destination.

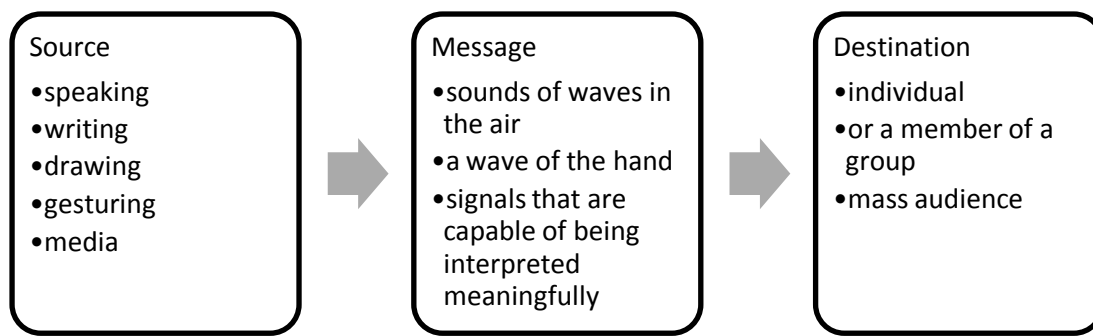


Figure 3.7 : Elements in communication

While the figure above illustrates the interactive process from the internal side of the organisation to the external side, the actual form of communication in the organisation's dimensions is often more complicated. Duncan and Moriarty (1998) introduced a more intricate communication model for organisations, the Communication-Based Marketing Model for Managing Relationships (Figure 3.8). Similar conceptions of communication theory were applied in Duncan and Moriarty's model.

The model consists of three sections: source, message activity and receiver (as shown by the dashed box). The source of the communication is divided into three designated levels. They are responsible for delivering the message. The medium device for this model is the relationship to its customers, which also includes the other stakeholders. This model reveals the importance of the brand relationship created by the organisation in communicating the right message to their end receivers, the customers. A communication system is necessary to get the desired message delivered. The communication-based marketing model of managing relationships recognises every internal process in an organisation and sends messages that may strengthen or weaken the brand relationship the organisation has with the customers.

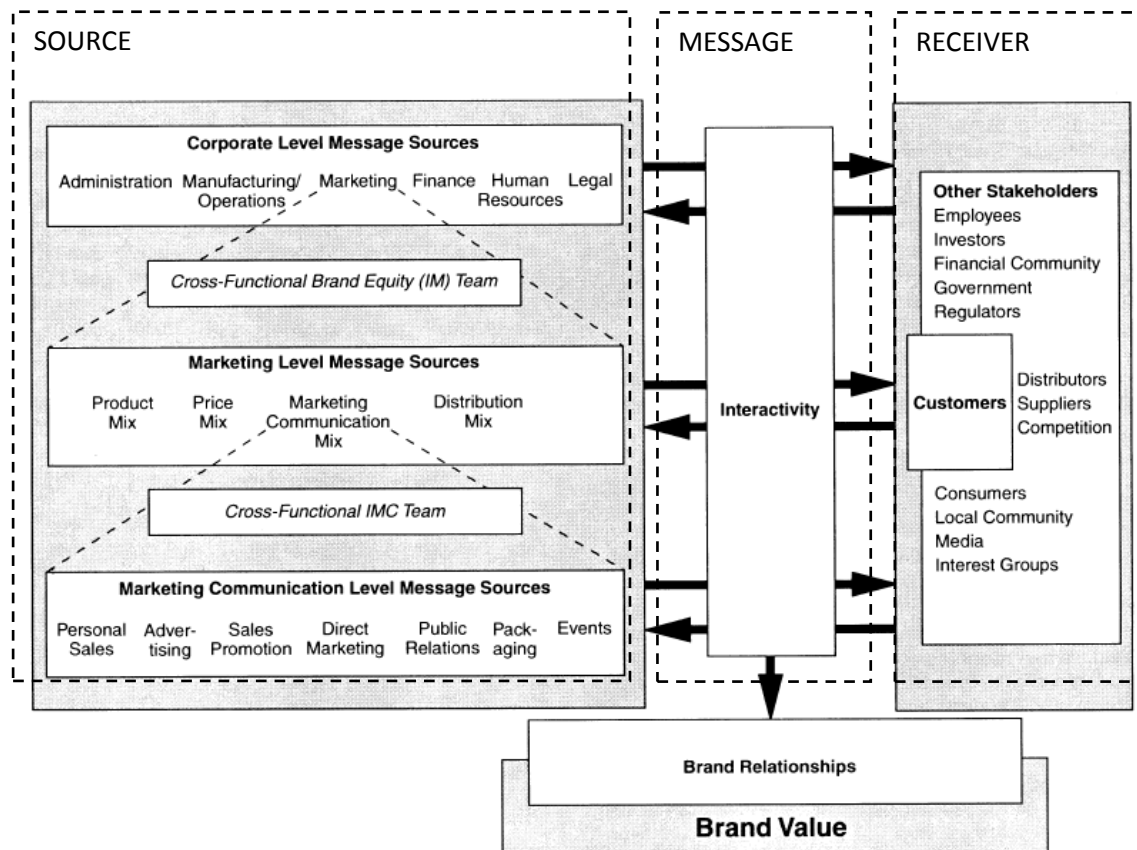


Figure 3.8 : Communication-based marketing model for managing relationships

Emphasis has been given to explaining communication theory because of its significance (alongside brand identity, internal organisational culture and consumer culture) in this research. Brand identity communicates the commitment of an organisation to its consumers. Ideal communication integration in marketing includes not just the sender and recipient, but also the external integration of visual design to the internal integration of the organisation's culture and members of the organisation (Torp, 2009, p. 191). A communication system will support the organisation to get their brand identity out and also reveal their internal culture to existing and potential customers.

3.3.5 Brand identity, communication and organisation

In order to be a leader, a brand must have a strong identity. There are many aspects of a brand that contribute to building a strong brand identity including brand image, brand positioning and brand personality.

Aaker (1996) developed a comprehensive Brand Identity Planning model (Figure 3.9), which is divided into three parts, starting with strategic brand analysis, then the brand identity system and lastly, the brand identity implementation system. The three parts assist in building an identity of a product or a service and start with an analysis of the demographics of the customers, competitors and the brand's internal context (Section 3.5 will explain this further). In the second part of the model, Aaker suggested positioning the brand in four different situations; as a product, as an organisation, as a person and as a symbol, in order to create a distinctive identity for the brand. The identity of a brand will hold a more resilient personality after being analysed in four different situations. Having a core identity and extended identity instilled in a brand will offer more connections with the customers. In the last part, the brand was prepared for the implementation of the identity plan and was then ready to be executed, together with a tracking system to monitor the progress of the brand.

Aaker takes a wider view of brand identity from the perspective of a product, organisation and symbol (the sender). He positions the product, organisation, person and symbol at the same level. However, building a brand involves phases; therefore, the positioning of a brand (as a product, organisation, person or symbol) should be in different phases. In the context of communication, this model only addresses the role of the sender (the organisation) in sending out the image of the product. No component of the receiver (customers) is included in this model, which makes it less comprehensive in communicating the message to customers, because communication needs to have a sender–medium–receiver (refer to Section 3.3.4) in order to have a complete cycle mechanism for transmitting the message.

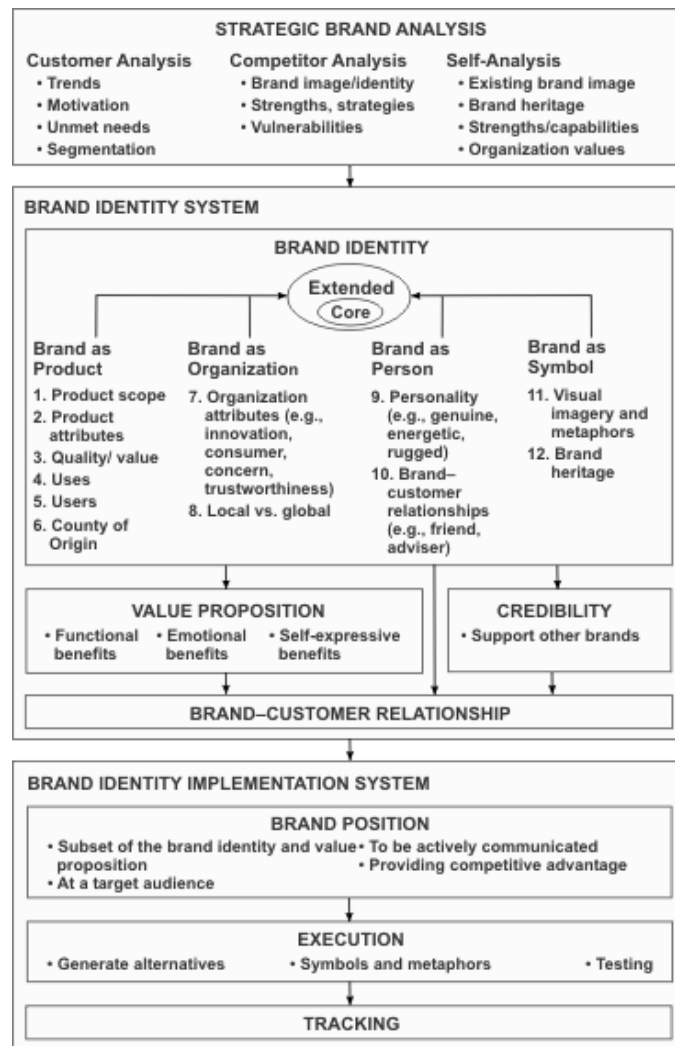


Figure 3.9 : Aaker's brand identity planning model

The mechanisms for sending messages related to brand identity from organisations to customers, employees and stakeholders were examined by Vallaster and de Chernatony (2005); their identity reputation gap model of brand management emphasised internal communication.

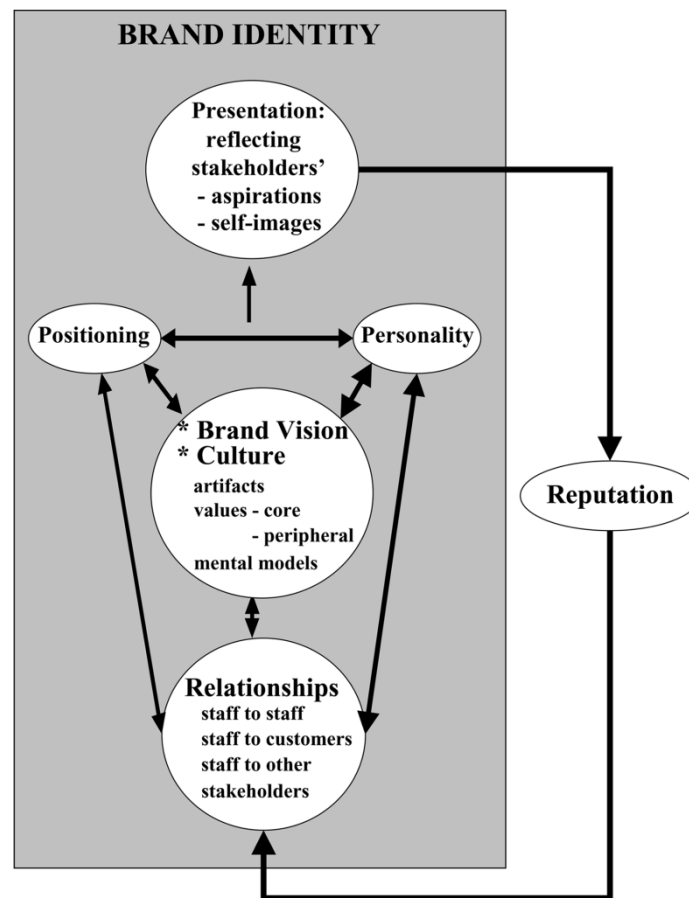


Figure 3.10 : The identity reputation gap model of brand management

Vallaster and de Chernatony (2005) structured the model (Figure 3.10) starting with a presentation of the brand, comprising the sender's aspirations and desired self-image of the organisation, brand and then consumers. This is followed by two variables that are equally important: the **positioning** and **personality** of the brand. Positioning and personality have a strong relationship to brand vision and culture, which in turn are also related strongly to relationships with the employees, stakeholders, customers and others. These interrelated concepts within an organisation, together with its customers' perceptions, sustain and enhance the organisation's brand identity, which also helps in building and sustaining the brand's reputation. The reputation of a brand is strongest when the brand is ahead and has different attributes than its competitors. Maintaining and improving brand reputation management has become a growing business in and of itself. The reputation of the brand and its organisation is an indicator of organisational accomplishment, because a brand with a good reputation is anticipated to be successful (Bhattacharya et al. 1995). However, maintaining and improving the brand reputation is a continuous process and has to be carried

out methodically. This research has proposed that the internal process is appropriate in managing the reputation of the brand (Foster, 2005). Thus, through a strong internal culture, individuals in an organisation may feel the need and willingness to perform the best for the organisation and maintain its reputation.

Communication is an important part of organisations' internal processes and plays a role in corporate branding, as described by Hatch and Schultz (2003). They constructed a model to align the vision, image and culture of an organisation in building a corporate brand. Figure 3.11 shows Hatch and Schultz's (2003, p. 1047) framework for understanding corporate branding by linking strategic vision, organisational culture and corporate images.

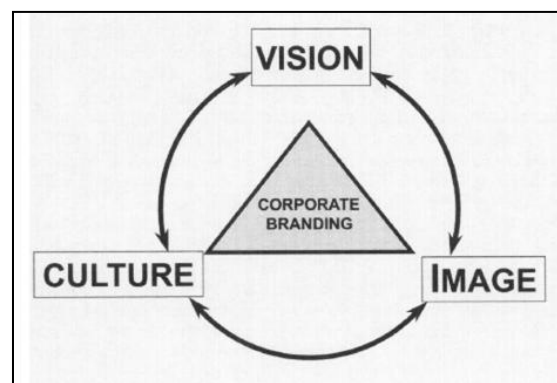


Figure 3.11 : Corporate branding framework

The model above is used to examine the consistency in communicating the organisation's corporate brand by involving and linking three elements: vision, culture and image. Hatch and Schultz (2003, pp. 1048-1051) argue that the strategic vision of members in the organisation is an important contributor to creating the organisation's culture. Organisational culture, which consists of the beliefs, meanings, stories and symbolic resources that are reflected in the corporate images (thereby, aligning corporate images with the strategic vision), is necessary to develop a successful and sustainable corporate brand (Hatch and Schultz, 2003).

Part of developing corporate branding is to recognise the identity of the brand (de Chernatony, 1999; Harris and de Chernatony, 2001). Kapferer (1992) introduced the brand identity prism (Figure 3.12) which helps in emphasising the corporate brand and corporate

identity for an organisation. The identity prism identifies features useful for recognising the unique and outstanding qualities of a brand.

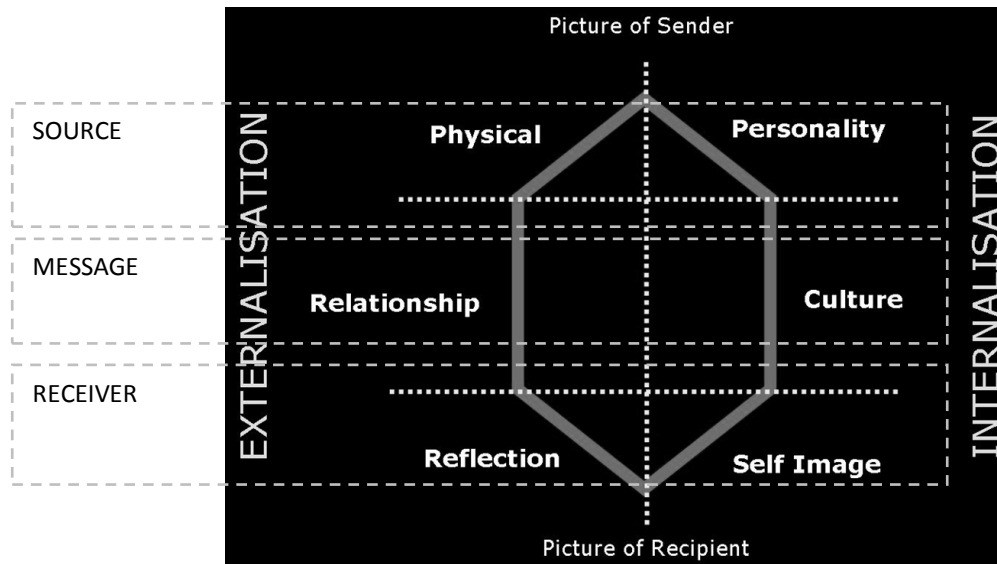


Figure 3.12 : Brand identity prism

The structure of the prism is an interpretation of communication theory in a brand communication capacity. There are similarities in the way both the communication models and the brand identity prism are built. Essentially, the fundamentals of the communication system are the same. They all have three levels to get the message across: from the source of the brand (the organisation); sending the message of the brand; and the receiver(s) of the brand (the customers) (as shown by the dashed lines). The prism demonstrates a communication process, as explained by Kapferer. The communication approach is fundamentally important for a positive outcome. However, for organisations to be consistent and efficient in communicating their brands internally and externally, they must know their brand very well. They must know the identity of the brand and integrating internal culture into the organisation will enhance the position of the brand (Ravasi and Schultz, 2006). The identity and the internal culture of the brand will assist in better communicating the brand to its customers.

3.4 Identity

Identity has a broad context and can be almost impossible to define (Balmer, 2008). There are various ways of theorising the concept of identity and each theory may offer a different definition (Lawler, 2008). Lawler, however, provides a notion of identity which hinges on similarities and differences. He describes the word 'identity' by referring to the root of the word, the Latin *idem* (same) which also means “identical”, to be identical (similar) with others by sharing common characteristic as, for example, “women”, “men”, and “black hair”. Another way of defining an identity, according Lawler (2008), is to look at what makes a product or service unique; this can therefore help to define a brand’s identity. To form an identity can be as simple as looking at the roots of the product or service. It can also be a complex process known as “identification” that refers to another person, object or event (Lawler, 2008, p. 22).

Balmer (2008) provides a more comprehensive, in-depth discussion regarding the concept of identity in the context of marketing, especially in corporate organisations. Balmer (2008) discusses five perspectives that relate identity and identification:

- i. Corporate identity (the identity of the organisation);
- ii. Communicated corporate identification (identification from the organisation);
- iii. Stakeholder corporate identification (an individual, or stakeholder groups, identification with the organisation);
- iv. Stakeholder cultural identification (an individual, or stakeholder group’s, identification to a corporate culture); and
- v. Envisioned identities and identifications (this is a broad category and relates to how an organisation, or group, envisions how another corporation or group characterises their identity or mode of identification) (p. 879)

Balmer’s perspective focuses on the organisations’ approach to establishing their identity. These five perspectives are interrelated and useful for organisations in building their identity

internally. This research used Balmer's perspective in order to understand organisation and identity better and may expand his perspective on an organisation's identification.

3.5 Analysing a brand in creating an identity

First and foremost, it is vital to know and understand the brand. A brand analysis investigates the strength and weakness of the brand and considerably helps the brand to create its own unique identity. Perception and prediction are not enough in analysing a brand. Brand analysis provides an understanding about the current situation of an organisation and its competitors.

In this study, the researcher used the strategic brand analysis strategy designed by Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000, p. 41) to create an initial scheme for the participating organisation. A summary of strategic brand analysis is shown in Figure 3.13.

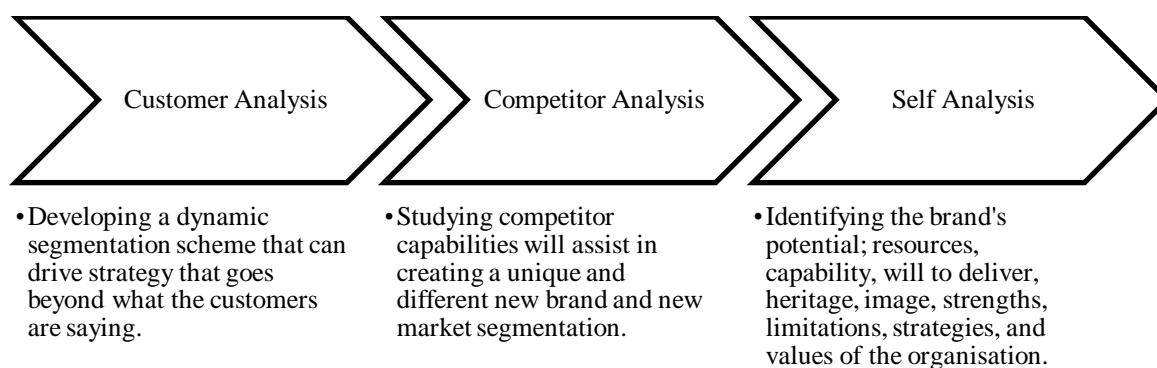


Figure 3.13 : Strategic brand analysis

The analysis shown in Figure 3.13 will be the guide for this researcher to analyse the participants' responses (Konecnik and Go, 2007). This analysis provides a strong framework for the researcher through its three main parts: customer analysis, competitor analysis and self-analysis. Each part requires attention in order to comprehend the data during the analysis phase.

The following section demonstrates the use of the strategic brand analysis model for two online sites: Facebook and Google. These sites were chosen because of their fast growth among users and their success over competitors who were in the field before them. Facebook

and Google were ranked relatively high in surveys (Yan, 2011) and strengthened their platform among online users within a few years of their establishment.

Facebook

Facebook is a social networking site that offers individuals and groups the chance to connect with others and harness the power of communication. It has a huge impact on people's everyday lives, given that the site did not exist in 2003. According to Reid (2011):

Facebook is a literacy practice within the domain of social networking, which is governed by certain values, such as establishing and negotiating identity, building relationships, staying connected, brevity, conciseness and immediacy. Creativity is valued and innovative codes are used. The mode is “chatting”, where “talk” becomes “text” (Reid, 2011, pp. 59-60).

Reid has described Facebook's strong positioning as a social network site online. As a brand, Facebook has established its identity online among its competitors. Among Facebook's competitors are Friendster and MySpace, which declined in popularity with the arrival of the Facebook era (Figure 3.14).

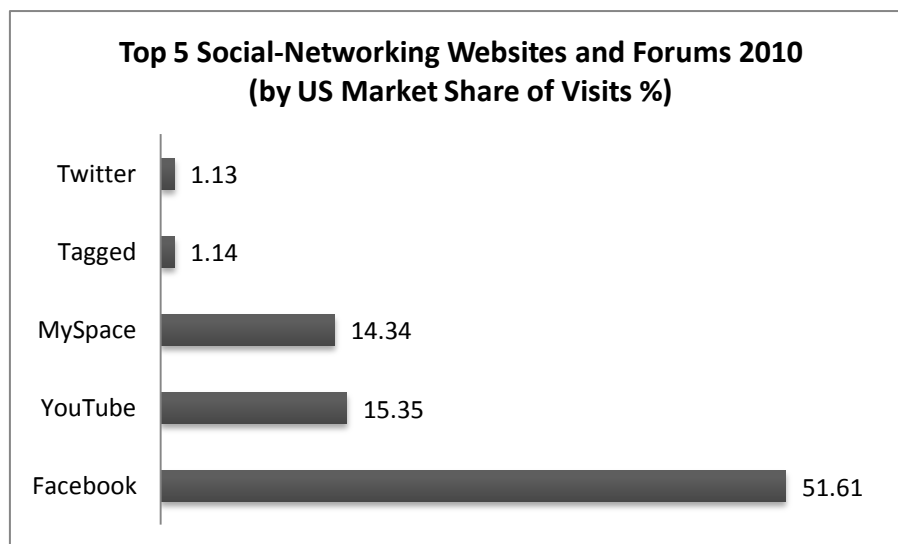


Figure 3.14 : Top five social networking websites and forums

Figure 3.14 demonstrates the popularity rankings of social networking websites and forums in the United States in 2010 (Top 5 Social Networking Websites and Forums, 2010). Created

in 2004, Facebook user numbers have increased far beyond those of YouTube (created in 2005) and MySpace (created in 2004). Facebook's advantage in its strong positioning is most likely to be the primary reason users sign up with Facebook. Facebook's creator, Mark Zuckerberg may have applied a strategic brand analysis that caused the site to be most visited social networking site worldwide. Figure 3.15 demonstrates a strategic brand analysis for Facebook.



Figure 3.15 : Strategic brand analysis for Facebook

The analysis above illustrates the importance of brand analysis and having a unique identity in order to break into a new segmentation of users, and demonstrates that having a proper understanding of brand positioning and appropriate brand analysis will accelerate the brand building phase and also emphasise brand identity.

Google

Google is another example of a fast growing brand. Created in 1996, two years after Yahoo!, millions of internet users worldwide have come to regard Google and the internet as one (Vise, 2005). Its fresh white, colourful font and simple front page attracts internet users from various walks of life “to rely so heavily on Google that they can’t imagine life without it” (p. 1).

Google is the gateway to the Internet for hundreds of millions of users worldwide. From Arabic to Zulu, the search engine can be used in more than 100 languages-even fake ones such as Esperanto and Klingon. In the United States, Google is the unquestionable market leader (Vise, 2006, p. 20).

Google is almost a synonym for the word “online search”. In everyday conversation, it is a recognised that if someone were asked to “google”, it means to do an online search on a certain topic. The word “google” was officially listed as a verb in Webster's Dictionary in 2006 (Vise, 2006). Being different from other search engine websites has undoubtedly positioned Google advantageously and provided it with its own exclusive identity.

These two examples (Facebook and Google) show the importance of being different in order to venture into new market segments. While Facebook and Google targets billions of online users who turn into online tribes and followers, the organisations need to find their own niches and brand identity to create new market segmentation and to attract customers.

3.6 Being different

A brand requires established and substantial points of difference to better differentiate the brand (Keller, 1999; Kevin Lane & Keith, 2006). Azoulay and Kapferer (2003) noted that in the late 1980s, it was growing more difficult to distinguish one brand from another in the market, due to the rising number of similar products. As a consequence, emphasis was given to focussing on the details of creating, building and reinforcing a brand. Through these processes, brands grow and composed their desired identity. This composition is part of the marketing mix concept. It contributes to the orchestration of diverse properties in the marketing mix to form a unified brand (Balmer & Greyser, 2006) and promote a strong visual identity (Melewar & Saunders, 2000) .

The marketing mix concept has dominated marketing research since it was introduced almost 50 years ago. Borden (1964) has popularized the term “marketing mix” that had been introduced by his associate, Professor James Cullington. Taken from Borden (1964), Professor James Cullington has described business executive as,

‘decider’, an ‘artist’—a ‘mixer of ingredients’, who sometimes follows a recipe prepared by others, sometimes prepares his own recipe as he goes along, sometimes adapts a recipe to the ingredients immediately available, and sometimes experiments with or invents ingredients no one else has tried (p. 7).

Borden introduced his own “ingredients” to the marketing mix and stated that organisations should be able to have their own marketing mix in order to suit their organisation best. Having the appropriate marketing mix will characterize a product or a service (Kotler, 1973). Marketing mixes comprise elements that position a product or service in the market. The marketing mix has been recommended by McCarthy (1968) in (Kotler and Zaltman, 1971).

Kotler and Zaltman summarise the four marketing mixes as, “developing the right ‘product’ backed by the right ‘promotion’ and put in the right ‘place’ at the right ‘price’ ” (1971, p. 7), which is also known as the four P’s. The four P’s marketing mix was then extended to seven P’s with the addition of “people”, “process”, and “physical evidence” (Elliot, Rundle-Thiele, and Waller, 2010; Gonçalves, 1998). The seven P’s provide a neat and useful framework for marketing decisions from the owners’ points of view, especially in the service industry. They also contribute to a basic understanding of a brand in a holistic manner, and emphasize characteristic that will shape the brand and provide its initial identity.

Moorthi (2002) has addressed different aspects of the seven Ps in regards to brand differentiation. He merged the seven Ps and merges it with the concept of brand identity, integrating the seven Ps with Aaker’s brand identity framework (i.e. mapping the ‘people’ dimension as organization culture) (refer to Figure 3.9). From the integration, Moorthi (2002) introduced three classification of goods; search goods (washing machine), experience goods (airline services), and credence goods (doctor consultant). While this has helped to better understand the differentiation process, a deeper exploration is required when building a brand’s identity. Wheeler (2013) strongly stated that,

bumper-to-bumper brands clamour for our attention. The world is a noisy place filled with panoply of choice. Why should consumers choose one brand over others? It is not enough to be different. Brands need to demonstrate their difference and make it easy for customers to understand that difference (p. 44).

Thus, being different is important. Aaker and Joachimstaler (1996) summarize the measurement of association and differentiation of a brand, presenting it as structured into three components; brand as a product, brand as a person, and brand as an organization. In a later article, Aaker and Joachimstaler (2000) discussed in detail the building of brand associations and creating differentiation. They stated that:

Building associations, the heart of brand building, is driven by the brand identity. The goal is not only strong associations, but also a differentiated brand... (p. 263)

They went on to also emphasize the significance of a symbol that represents the brand, providing consistency and structure to an identity for the brand, which, will help in achieving recognition. These associations need to be tightly woven into the brand symbol as part of the brand identity. However, it is important to keep in mind that a symbol is just one part of brand differentiation. The current research explores a broader view on differentiating a brand.

3.6.1 The attraction: visual identity

There are some relatively new dimensions in branding related to visual identity. Visual identity can be described as the graphical components that symbolise a brand. Think of the Nike swoosh symbol, the McDonald arches, Apple's logo of an apple with a bite taken out of it: these are among the most powerful visual identity brands, communicated easily in most parts of the world.

Visual identity is a component in branding - the part you see, obviously. As such it is an important part because what you see is more likely to influence you than what you are told or what you are comprehend from a deck of 80 word slides (Clifton, Simmons, and Ahmad, 2004, p. 112).

According to Clifton et al., (2004), an ideal brand's visual identity comprises logos, symbols, colours and typefaces. The focus has also been on corporate visual identity (Hynes, 2009; Jun et al. 2008), describing an in-depth interpretation of unique designs. Hynes (2009) suggests that organisations should reflect their visual identity design (colour, logo) in their corporate identity planning. He stresses the dynamics of design and its relationship to identity right from the beginning. This study will also incorporate visuals during field research; therefore, it is important to be aware of what has been done in previous research. As suggested by the scholars mentioned above, the visuals have an influence in building the identity of a brand.

3.7 Brand identity: summary

Brands vary. Having a good identity with the right positioning is likely to augment the strength of the brand. Strong brands establish credibility in consumers' minds (Keller, 1993). They build trust about the brands' promises and the establishment of brand equity. Brand identity cannot be built on its own; it has to be based on strong fundamentals including the name, sign, logo, image, position and many other factors that are essential in making a distinctive brand. These unique characteristics provide the seeds for making one brand different from others. Identity is based on what is established in the organisation's practices; the culture it holds on to. A strong brand and organisational identity will influence the individuals who belong to the organisation. Exercises to reshape and refresh the brand are necessary to keep customers coming in and eager to know what is next in store for them.

3.8 Definition of internal organisational culture

3.8.1 Culture

“Culture is an extremely popular construct,” (Taras et al. 2009, p. 357).

'Culture' is widely used in disciplines such as anthropology, ethnology and human geography and is a complex concept to define. Culture is transmitted from one generation to another with similar interests. Shared values, behaviours, language and symbols will shape a culture and distinguish a group of people. In an earlier definition, Tylor (1903) described culture as something that every human being will experience without realising it. Culture is part of us; it is made up of the shared values that we practise in our daily life.

It being shown that the details of culture are capable of being classified in a great number of ethnographic groups of arts, beliefs, customs, and the rest, the consideration comes next how far the facts arranged in these groups are produced by evolution from one another. It need hardly be pointed out that the groups in question, though held together each by a common character, are by no means accurately defined (Tylor, 1903, p. 14).

In a more recent definition of culture, Banerjee (2008) observed that culture was something that can be learned, shared and practised by a society as their principal determinant. These

determinants are abstract, depending on what was thought and shared with individuals in a society. According to Kluckhohn and Mowrer (1944), culture determines:

[W]hat is learned: available skills, standards of value, and basic orientations to such universal problems as death. Culture likewise structures the conditions under which learning takes place: whether from parents or parent surrogates or from siblings or from those in the learner's own age grade, whether learning is gradually and gently acquired or suddenly demanded, whether renunciations are harshly enforced or reassuringly rewarded (p. 45).

McCracken (1986) viewed culture as the “lens through which the individual views phenomena and as the ‘blueprint’ of human activity” (p. 72); that is, how individuals perceive and interpret phenomena in a constituted world. Culture-inspired social behaviour and interaction is obvious through the values and norms that gather a society together (Craig and Douglas, 2006). Hofstede (2007, p. 12) defined culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another.” Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) defined culture using the diagram shown in Figure 3.16 (Section 4.5 for a more detailed explanation on this model). The onion model is a metaphor used by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005, p. 7) to represent the total concept of culture.

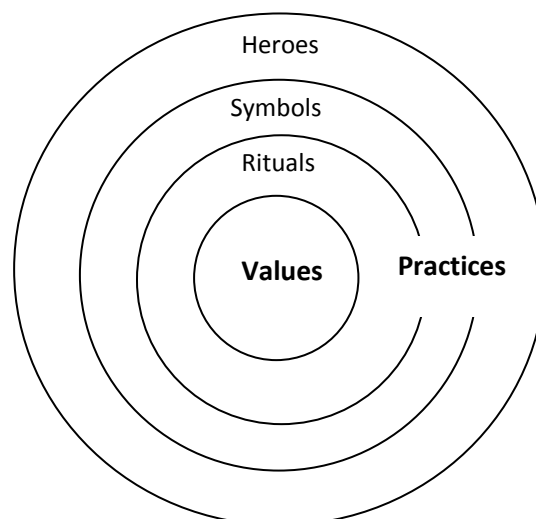


Figure 3.16 : Hofstede's definition of culture

Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) link motivation to culture. According to them, motivation within oneself inspires a certain act made by an individual. A continuous process of this explains the motive of one's behaviours which then will develop into a culture. Continuous practise of a certain behaviour, which builds into a group culture, can be thought of as the accumulated learning that develops gradually (Schein, 1988). For example, the Maori culture belongs to the native people of New Zealand; the language and way of life of the Maori has a major impact on New Zealanders' lives.

Along with Schein (1988), Evans and Lindsay (2005) asserted that culture is practised without being thought of or talked about. This phenomenon happens naturally in a group since it is shared and practised widely. In addition, Evans and Lindsay (2005) believed that culture has a dominant influence when it comes to a person's behaviour. A person's behaviour is often rooted in their upbringing and what is passed on to them from earlier generations through the process of socialisation. Such people have a language and symbols that they share and understand, making them a group of people who practise the same culture. It can be also said that culture is descriptive; it is the way things are (Barrow and Mosley, 2005).

3.8.2 Organisational culture

Culture defines our society and can drive social change.

Organisational culture is no different (Williams, 2008).

Within the domain of organisational literature, the definition of organisational culture is broad. Perhaps the most likely common definition is 'the way things were done in an organisation' (Lundy and Cowling, 1996). According to Sun (2008), "organisational culture should be regarded as the right way in which things are done or problems should be understood in the organisation" (p. 137).

Kroeber and Kluckhohn, in their classic review of culture (1952), reported more than 150 different definitions of culture. Quoting from Bhaskaran and Sukumaran (2007), "according

to Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) an entity's culture is the predominant values and behaviours of its members and such values and behaviours are acquired through a common history and experience” (p. 54). This is relatively understandable, because each organisation has their own way of doing things; their own sets of values, goals, atmosphere and characters, which makes them different from others (McAleese and Hargie, 2004).

Organisational culture is basically the unique character of an organisation. Earlier, the researcher discussed the definition of culture, which comprised symbols, heroes, rituals and values. Such a definition can be applied in an organisational setting. Lately, organisational culture has been developing towards an interdisciplinary outlook and attempting to weave these disciplines (for example, phenomenology) together (Schein, 1996). This research aims to absorb and integrate these different ideas and take an interdisciplinary stance towards organisational culture.

Schein (1996) also stated his experience in researching on culture and areas to be improved:

Even though I have worked on culture as a variable for over 10 years, I keep being surprised by how little I understand its profound influence in situation after situation. I believe our failure to take culture seriously enough stems from our methods of inquiry, which put a greater premium on abstractions that can be measured than on careful ethnographic or clinical observation of organisational phenomena (p. 229).

Schein's thoughts show the need for research on culture and organisational phenomena in order to encourage consistent practising of culture within organisations. The impact of practising of culture within an organisation was reflected by Peters and Waterman (1982):

Without exception, the dominance and coherence of culture proved to be an essential quality of the companies. Moreover, the stronger the culture and the more it was directed towards the marketplace, the less need was there for policy manuals, organisation charts, or detailed procedures and rules. In these companies, people way down the line know what they are supposed to do in most situations because the handful of guiding values is crystal clear (cited in Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005, p. 282).

Schein (1984) defined organisational culture as a problem-solving mechanism that has worked well to cope with, and minimise, problems of adaptation and integration arising in organisations, be they internal or external. The problem-solving mechanism will then be passed on to new members as a way to react to certain issues.

In the book *Understanding Organisations*, Handy (1999) saw organisational culture as something that is felt and perceived by an individual. According to Handy, factors such as history, ownership, technology, environment, size, goals, objectives and people might influence the culture of an organisation, a department or individual. Hankinson and Hankinson (1999, p. 136) view organisational culture as the “company's overall philosophy, a set of values and beliefs that shape the way people think and behave.” These definitions resonate with Schein’s (1984, p. 4) description of culture as consisting of artefacts, values and key assumptions (Figure 3.17).

In the first ten years of our lives we are taught basic values in our day-to day-lives and slowly, after completing school, our values are firmed within ourselves and become important as part of the national culture. Figure 3.18 (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005, p. 285) illustrates the development of values taught by family members and school before we enter the work force (refer to Figure 3.11 for more explanation on values).

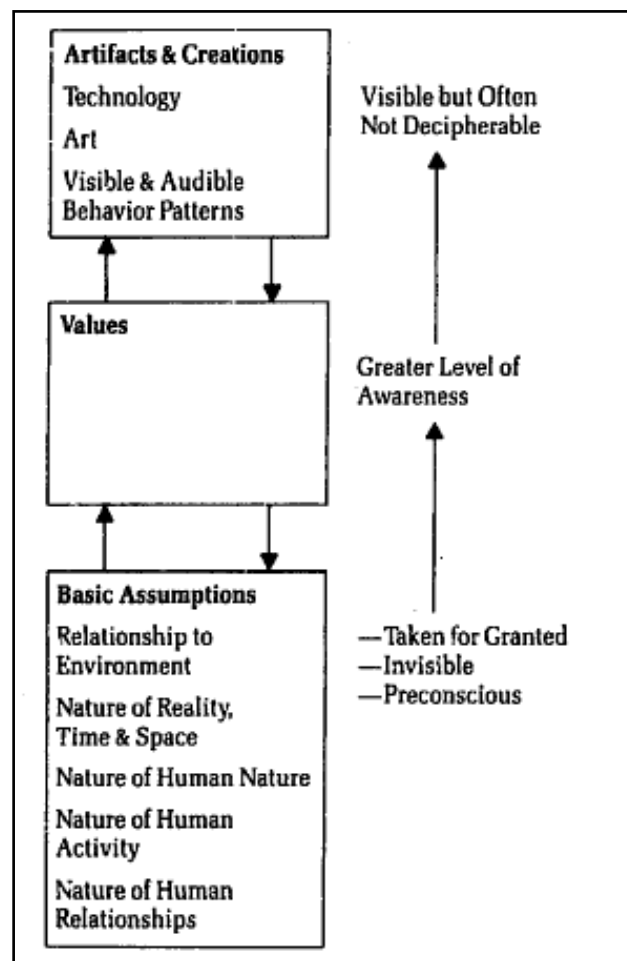


Figure 3.17 : The levels of culture and their interaction

There are many ways to develop an organisational culture. It can be through formal training within an organisation or an informal socialisation process. Formal and informal activities in an organisation can be seen as values and behaviours that are shared by a group of employees. The values and behaviours shared within the organisation shape the employee's sense of what culture is acceptable and valid in the organisation (Wilson, 2001, p. 353).

De Chernatony (2001) believes that communication between staff and customers may reflect the service and image of the organisation. Staff on duty at the front desk initiates the first experience a customer will have with the organisation. To give a good first experience to a customer, it is essential to have an appropriate organisational culture in order to mould a competitive and unique brand. Evans and Lindsay (2005) looked at the work undertaken in an organisation as a starting point in developing an organisational culture. Among the identified development elements are function, process and ideology. Function is a task that contributes

to meeting the objectives of an organisation, while process is about the procedures used to perform the task and what results are expected. In order to establish the function and to get the process running smoothly in an organisation, a practical set of values (known as an ideology) should be employed.

Hofstede and Hodstede (2005) write in detail about national and organisational culture. He looks at the differences and similarities between these two cultures and concludes that the two represent different cultures. Hofstede based this on human mental development according to the years of our lives.

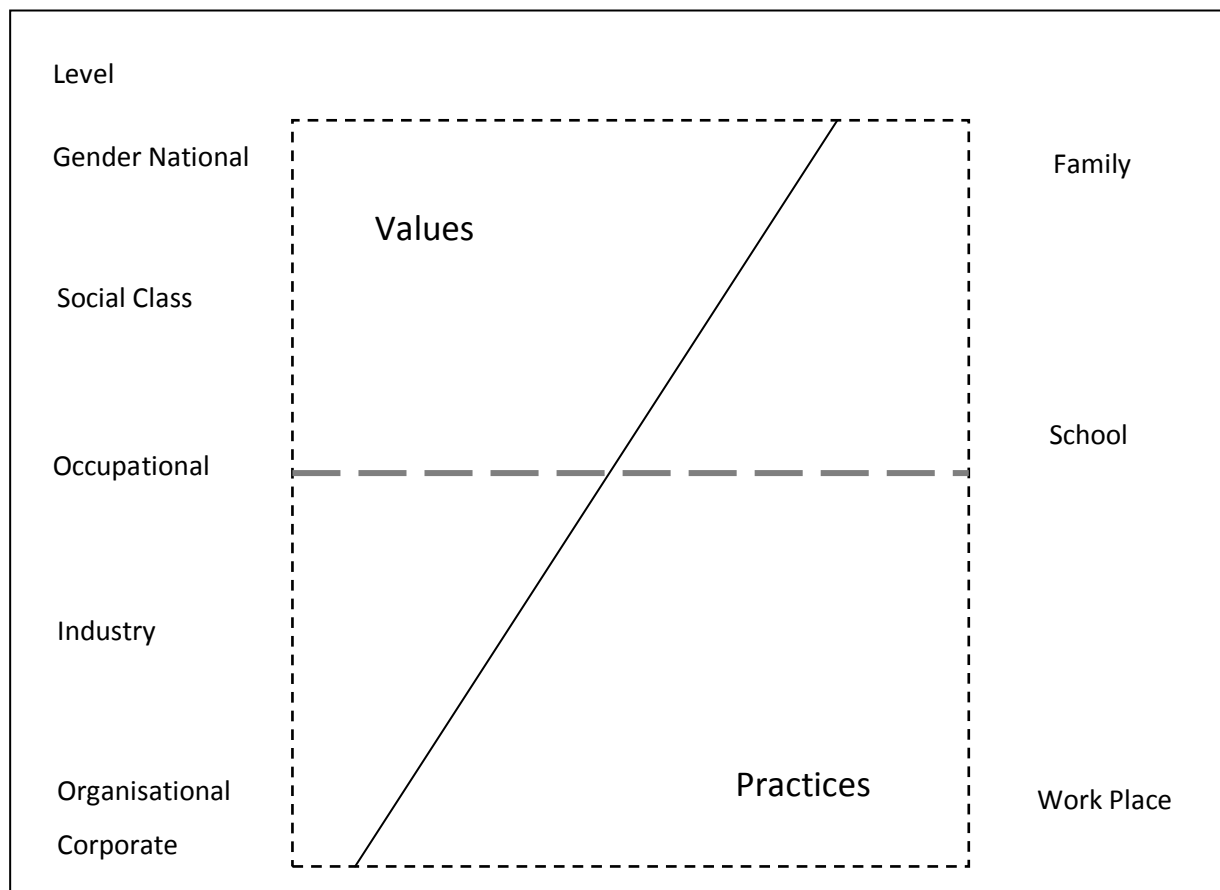


Figure 3.18 : The balance of values and practices for various levels of culture

Organisational culture is introduced to an individual when they enter an organisation or join any work force (occupation, business or organisation). As highlighted in Figure 3.18, the practices introduced in any organisation become the culture of the organisation and the

people working in the organisation will be part of the culture. These practices, unlike values, can be modified depending on the situation, although this can be costly and time consuming (Hofstede, 1998). Acknowledging that there is no standard definition of the concept of organisational culture, Hofstede and Hofstede (2005, p. 282) assume that most people will agree on the definition given in Figure 3.19.

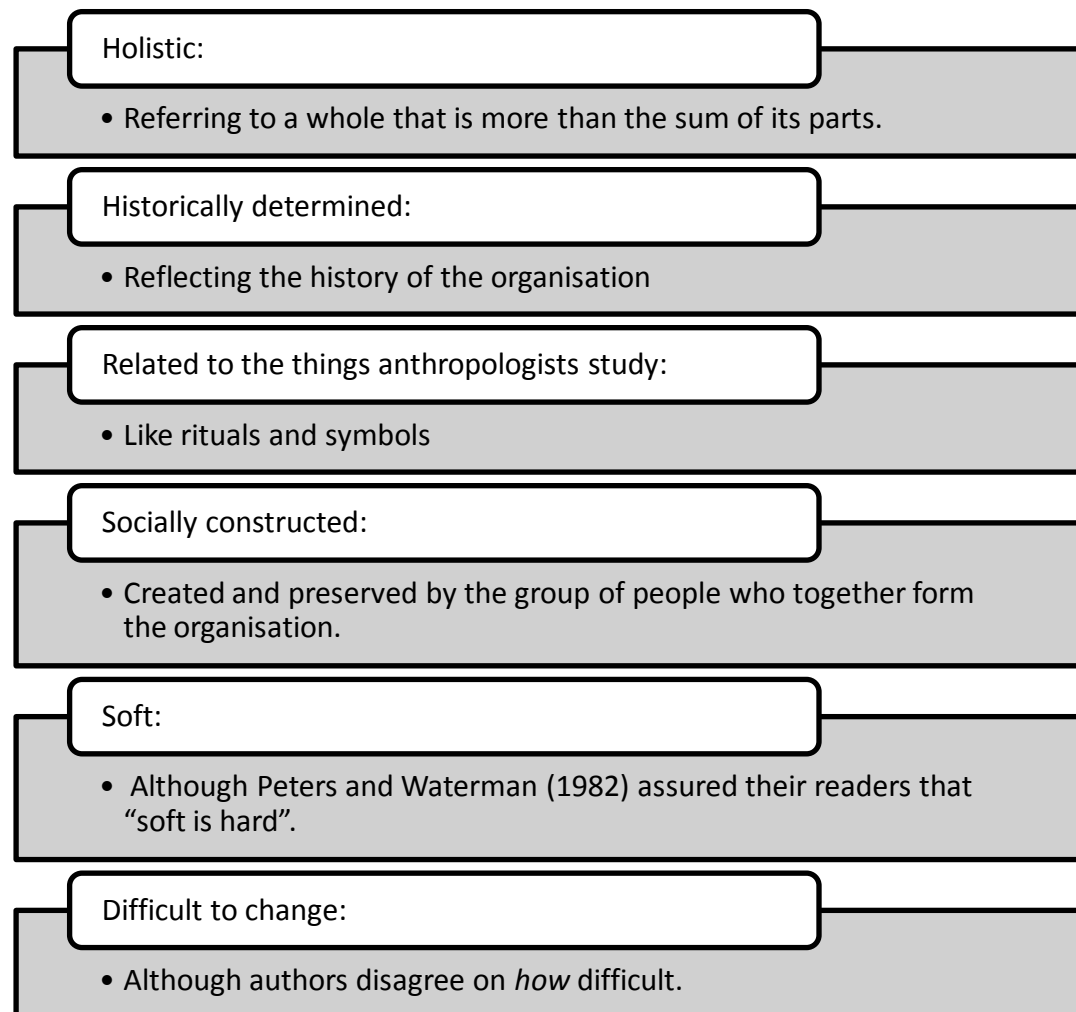


Figure 3.19 : Summary of the definition of organisational culture

Measuring organisational culture

As discussed earlier in this section, organisations have been making conscious efforts to identify their organisational culture. In the process of identifying the culture within, culture-measuring indicators have been introduced by scholars (Hofstede, 1998; Denison, 2004; and

House, 2004). These measuring mechanisms are now well established. They disclose the best qualities existing in organisations and propose benchmarking processes.

Figure 3.20 illustrates a benchmarking process for organisational culture. It proposes key values and beliefs that support the employee's participation in achieving the organisation's objectives and future plans (Kyriakidou and Gore, 2005, p. 198).



Figure 3.20 : Benchmarking organisational culture

Kyriakidou and Gore (2005) suggest that leaders in an organisation should promote a culture that enhances the performance of the organisation by applying four key values: teamwork; collaborative setting of strategies; building the future together; and building the ability to learn. These four key values are believed to integrate the organisation, culture, people and messages, and bring the employees together. The process of integration is to ensure the augmentation of performance and as a benchmark for the level of internal culture in the organisation.

The study of organisational culture grew out of the rise of Japanese and Western firms in the late 1970s and early 1980s and were mostly undertaken by anthropologists (Ouchi and Wilkins, 1985, p. 458). Exploring the internal culture of an organisation can be reflected to the external part; that is, what is seen by consumers (Hatch and Schultz, 1997, p. 356). Developing an internal culture that offers satisfaction to the customers (Bellou, 2007, p. 510)

retains customer interest in the brand (Albert et al. 2008, p. 1062). The continuous process of brand relationship among consumers, as explained by Fournier and Lou (1997, p. 451) may develop into a meaningful relationship and establish a reference group or tribe (Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2009, p. 320).

3.9 Internal brand culture

A brand can create emotional values and at the same time promise a brand experience that could gain consumers' loyalty. It is the customer's experience with the product that is transmitted in every interaction with the customer over the lifetime of their relationship. Word-of-mouth from a consumer who has experienced the brand seems to play an important role when it comes to describing and accepting a certain product or service (de Chernatony and Segal-Horn, 2003; Hogan et al., 2005; Luczak et al. 2007). Wang (2011) investigated the consequences of unreliable word-of-mouth on service quality perception in the period of service encounter and found that perceptions were influenced by the final positive word-of-mouth event. Similarly, Ng, David and Dagger (2011) found that word-of-mouth behaviour does depend on the perception of service quality (for example, technical and functional quality).

According to Kitchen and Schultz (2003), perceptions of a brand are created by organisations. Poor perceptions from customers during a service encounter can result from a lack of innovation, confused brand portfolios, inconsistencies of brand extensions, inadequate service and inconsistencies in communication with consumers. Therefore, organisations should give more attention to the **internal branding** process to attain the desired perceptions and service experience for customers and hence also encourage positive word of mouth.

Mahnert and Torres (2007) and Ellwood (2002) have similar opinions about internal brand culture when it comes to reflecting the values of a brand and comprehending the promise of a brand. The five elements, shown in Figure 3.21, are the internal brand culture values introduced by Ellwood (2002, p. 269). She believes that language, organisational structures, rituals and conventions, attitudes and beliefs, and behaviour are important in developing an organisational culture. Simultaneously, each element has its role in building a brand.

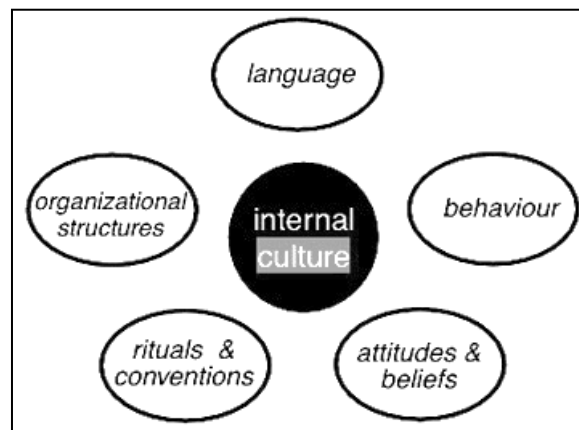


Figure 3.21 : Internal brand culture values

Language, behaviour, attitudes and beliefs, rituals and conventions, and organisational structures are essential in shaping an internal brand culture. The language used in the brand name may reflect the identity of the brand (Paliwoda and Slater, 2009). Behaviour, attitudes and beliefs are essential in constructing relevance among individuals in an organisation (Hotho, 2008); continuous rituals and strong conventions may contribute in building internal culture; organisational structures are also important in ensuring success of brand (Hankinson, 1999). Ellwood (2002) presented values for internal brand building for organisations to refer to for the purpose of enhancing relationships with employees and customers.

The relationship between the consumer and the brand, together with the consumer's perception of the brand, is the key to brand acceptance (Ataman and Ulengin, 2003). Brand acceptance is about approval given by the consumer to the product or service that she/he has used. The relationship between the consumer and the brand can only be built once the consumer knows about the product or service and uses it, at which point perceptions will be formed about the product. Perceptions can be negative or positive, depending on the individuals and the experience they have with the brand. If the perceptions are positive, then and only then will there be brand acceptance. Building a brand internally is essential to prepare the brand for future enhancement (Aurand et al. 2005). Thus, this study focused on building the identity of the brand and identifying its culture internally to strengthen its position with employees and customers. The following sections will explain the internal organisational process further.

3.10 Organisational culture and internal marketing

In creating a service and a customer-oriented culture, service organisations are inclined to follow internal marketing practices (Mosley, 2007, George, 1990). The emergence of internal marketing in the 1970s has had a major influence on the design of an organisation's objectives (Vasconcelos, 2008). Internal marketing was first introduced by Berry et al. (1976) as a solution to maintaining high service quality every time. Effective internal marketing must be able to promote satisfaction among the employees, which will then generate customer satisfaction (Bowen, 1990). Gronroos (1990) added further dimensions to Bowen's statement and explained internal marketing in detail:

First of all, internal marketing is a management philosophy. Management should create, continuously encourage, and enhance an understanding of and an appreciation for the roles of the employees in the organisation. Employees should have holistic views of their job (p. 8).

In most organisations, internal marketing has a function to ensure that employees understand and deliver the organisation's objectives. Employees are expected to be customer-conscious and at the same time satisfied with their job (Gounaris, 2008). Excellent service given by employees is likely to be a positive attribute in building a strong brand in service organisations. Srivastava and Thomas (2010) agree that a strong brand is more likely to deliver the brand promise through consistent and strong internal operations.

The behaviour of employees gives customers a first impression of the organisation (Berry, 1995; Rafiq and Ahmed, 1998) and effective interactions are essential in developing positive first impressions. High commitment from employees towards the organisation and the brand is essential since it encourages high service quality (Vasconcelos, 2011). High commitment includes: positive employee attitudes, task involvement, work motivation and job satisfaction (Tansuhaj et al. 1991). Putting these together builds a competent and consistent service quality and thus promotes customer's preference and trust (Eisingerich and Bell, 2007). The ultimate objective of an organisation is to build an emotional bond with customers (Pitta, 2008). As the understanding grows between the organisation and the customers, better bonds

will be created and this will offer benefits to both the organisation and the customers (Rashid, 2003).

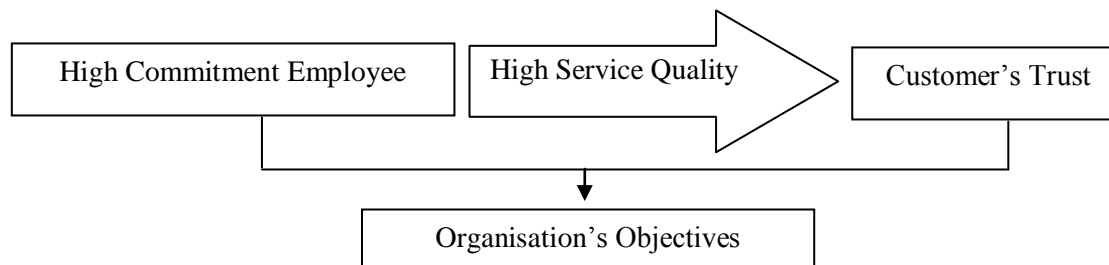


Figure 3.22 : Internal marketing concept

In Figure 3.22, the concepts of internal marketing based on the literature are summarised. High commitment among employees in performing their service will build trust among the customers about quality service. Fundamentally, the purpose of internal marketing within an organisation is to motivate employees at all levels to consistently deliver high quality service to the customers and at the same time fulfil the objectives of the organisation. Internal marketing connects the whole organisation and improves the quality and the environment of the organisation (Mishra, 2009). The concept of organisational culture has a significant effect on internal marketing in many ways, via internal mapping processes (Lee and Wen-Jung, 2005) such as communication, routines in the organisation, customer consciousness and the practice of service quality. Therefore, this research will also explore the features of internal marketing while focusing on internal culture.

3.11 Values

Values are judgements about ideas, whether good or bad; for example, self-respect and contentedness. Alkailani et al. (2012) stated that, “Individuals express the normative qualities of culture through the values they hold about life and the world around them. These values, in turn, affect their attitudes about the form of behaviour considered most appropriate and effective in any given situation” (p. 72). Values are also dynamic since they are generated by experiences and life lessons, and organisations may adopt new values over time in order to compete (Chirico and Nordqvist, 2010). Values contribute to the development of identity

within an organisation and also to establishing the organisation's internal culture; values are an important component in this research because of this.

According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), values form the core of cultural behaviour. Values are associated with positive and negative feelings in situations (e.g. good versus evil). Values can also be described as "belief of what is right and wrong and what is important in life" (Hornby, 2005, p. 1693). The word 'value' is discussed in detail in The New Penguin Business Dictionary (Bannock et al. 2002, p. 378) and is aligned with the context of this study. Bannock et al. (2002) define values as judgements about ideas. Mostly, value systems in organisations motivate an individual's attitude in the workplace and are closely related to organisational culture (Bannock et al., 2002, p. 379).

Values are part of the broader concept of culture and this paper further reinforces the importance of brand reality by considering how culture can affect brand performance. It has [been] argued that culture is not something management can rigidly control, but rather is a context within which employees interpret a brand's identity (de Chernatony, 1999, p. 173).

This and the definitions of culture and organisational culture as discussed in the earlier sections demonstrate that values are part of culture and have a role in building brand identity. This relation is important in upholding and maintaining values within an organisation and in reflecting its identity to the external part of the organisation. "The organisation's overall goals, values, and positions come to be expressed through brands, and thus acquire an identity" (Urde, 1999, p. 117).

Urde (1999) demonstrated the relationship between organisational values and identity. He stated that goals, values and positions can be communicated through the brand. In the process of communicating the organisation's message, it is essential for the brand, and also the organisation, to have strong, clear values and brand identity in order to relate to the customers.

3.12 Consumers

Lawson et al. (1996) stated that “a customer is a person who buys a product or a service, while a consumer is the end user of the product or service” (p. 4). The concept of consumer decision making has been acknowledged by previous researchers (Engel et al. 1993). In relation to that, Zeithaml et al. (2009, p. 51) emphasised the ways in which a customer chooses and makes decisions, and the steps that lead to the purchase of a particular service, as shown in Figure 3.23.

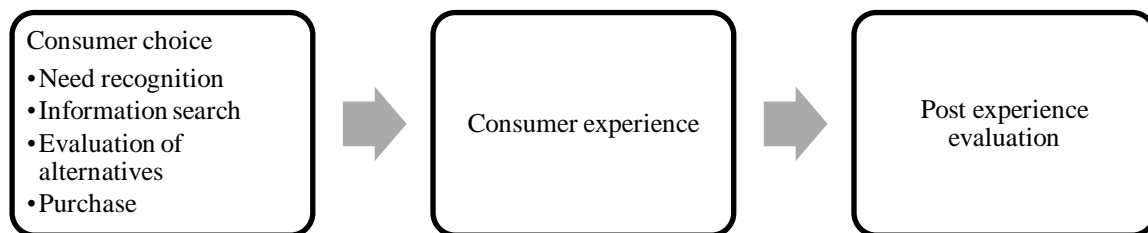


Figure 3.23 : Stages in consumer decision making and evaluation of services

Consumers’ attributes will be investigated in this research through the lens of the participating owners. Various scholars have published on the relationship between the brand and the consumer (Aaker, 1992; Angelmar et al. 2007; Audhesh et al. 2007; Azoulay and Kapferer, 2003; Hamarn et al. 2007; Jevons et al., 2005; Keller, 1993).

While the focus of this study is on the influence of internal organisational culture in brand building, it cannot be denied that consumers play a very important role in building a brand. Upon every encounter with a product or service, potential customers evaluate the image portrayed and the promises made by the brand and make a decision about whether they are going to purchase and experience it or not. After experiencing the product or service, they will have a perception of what the brand is about and may talk about it (word-of-mouth); this can be positive or negative.

3.12.1 Consumer culture

There have been many ideologies relating to consumer culture (Featherstone, 1991; Slater, 1997). Historically, as quoted by Miles (1998), from the perspective of Mckendrick et al.

(1982), the consumer revolution in England started in the eighteenth century. At present, consumer culture is common in every day life; it is a way of life for most people in the postmodern era (Featherstone, 1991). As an economist, Slater (1997) argued that consumers are constrained by the constant innovation in the market to feed the boundless needs of consumers. He viewed consumers' continuous struggle to fit into the modern world as a pattern, a culture:

Consumer culture in important respects the culture of the modern west - certainly central to the meaningful practice of everyday life in the modern world; and it is more generally bound up with central values, practices and institutions which define western modernity, such as choice, individualism and market relations (p. 8).

“We live in a consumer culture,” stated (Goodman and Cohen, 2004, p. 1). Thoughts on consumer culture and its relation to society have received the most attention since the mid-eighteenth century (Hall and Gieben, 1992). Consumer culture constructs a consumption pattern and the idea of a commercial society consisting of social and economic matters. Hall and Gieben (1992) also suggest the importance of being well-mannered “to be(ing) a more refined way of life and enlarged cultural horizons” (p. 130). This consumption pattern has been seen since the eighteenth century. It integrates a combination of patterns from different areas, such as the economy, social and consumer experts' observations on consumption theory and consumers' power in defining economic patterns. Consumption and economic patterns draw together contributions from past scholars and how they influenced the thoughts of current scholars on subjects such as sociology, the economy, marketing (branding) management and culture (Coser and Merton, 1971; Cova et al., 2007; Featherstone, 1991; Godin, 2008; Goodman and Cohen, 2004; Logan et al. 2008; Miles, 1998; Schumpeter and Perlman, 1952; Skousen, 2009). These thoughts are incorporated directly and indirectly throughout this study to demonstrate their relationships to each another. It has also brought attention to the arrival of the intense brand-consumer relationships, which shows through the emerging of consumer 'tribes'.

A tribe is a group of people connected to one another, a leader, or an idea (Godin, 2008). Godin's description of tribe is paralleled in the Oxford Learner's Dictionary, which defines a

tribe as a group, a class of people or a large number of people (Hornby, 1995). It is interesting to see how an individual is attached to a tribe. Social identity theory (Tajfel, 2010) argues that individuals from the same social group (for example, fans of the same team) will treat each other more favourably than they would if they were from different groups (for example, a fan versus a non-fan) (Hickman e al. 2005). Figure 3.24 demonstrates the phases of tribe development by Mullen and Goethals (1987).

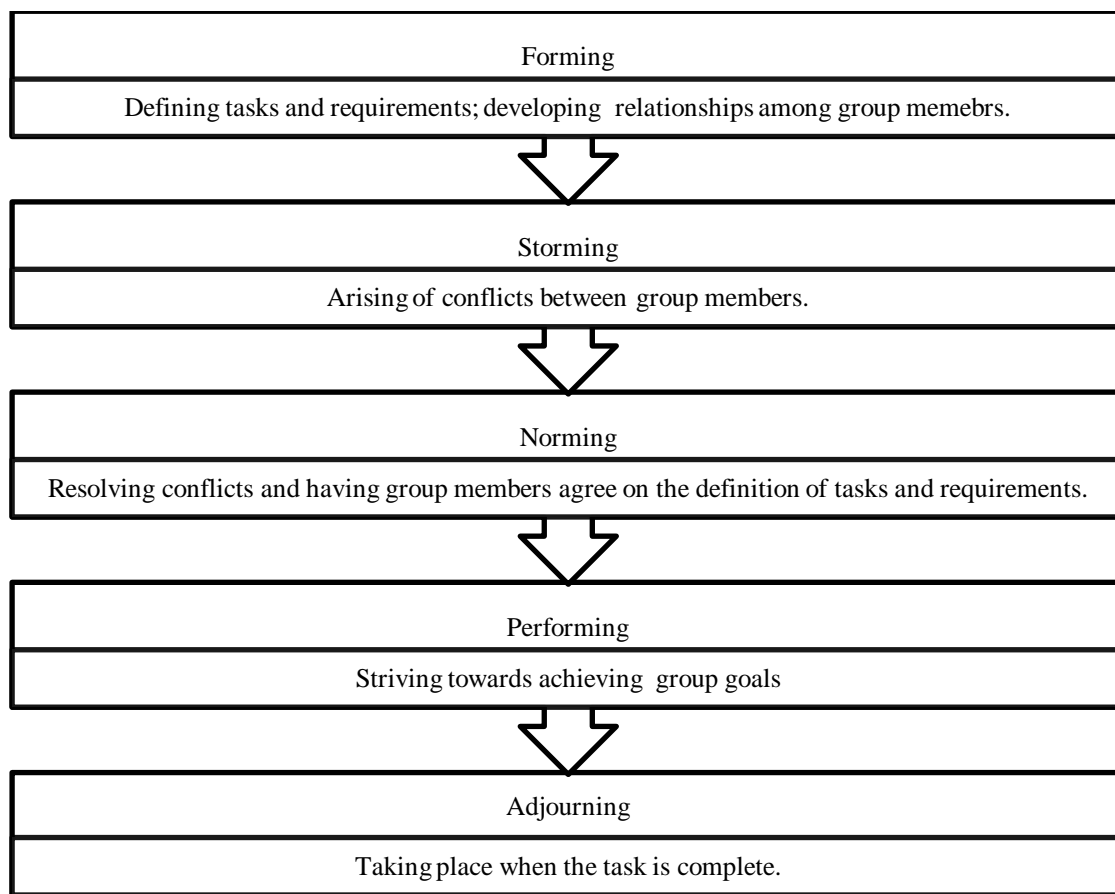


Figure 3.24 : Phases of group development

To bring a group of people together has its own development phase, as pointed out by Mullen and Goethals (1987, p. 11). Figure 3.24 demonstrates the five phases of group development that help in building a shared identification among members. However, leaders of an organisation need to have a comprehensive internal operation in order to relate to consumers and create strong bonds with them (Zeithmal, Parasuraman, and Berry, 1990). This study focuses on the identification process from the perspective of the leaders of an organisation

and how that identification was projected onto the customers by way of internal practices and the services provided.

Chapter 4: Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

This chapter outlines the theoretical foundation guiding this research and provides an overview of the theories relevant to the research problem. Theories of brand identity and internal organisational culture were chosen because they offer suitable theoretical and analytical lenses to address the owners' perception of brand, brand building, internal organisational culture and the transmission of this to members of the organisation. The aim was to explore and understand the process of inventing a distinctive branding concept and to identify the internal culture practised by members of the organisation to forge a unique identity.

Numerous theories relevant to the study of branding have been proposed by marketing scholars (Aaker, 1991, 1996; de Chernatony, 2001; Kapferer, 1997; Keller, 1993, 2008; Kotler, 2000). For this study, two domains - brand identity and organisational culture - are considered. Brand identity and organisational culture were chosen as the theoretical foundation to guide this research because of their particular emphasis on the internal aspects of a brand and the culture associated with the brand. As such, brand identity and organisational culture offer appropriate theoretical and analytical lenses through which to examine the research questions in this study. While they are individual areas of study, it is likely that there is an overlap between these two domains (Burman and Zeplin, 2005; de Chernatony and Segal-Horn, 2003; Mosley, 2007). Other supporting concepts that have a critical role in this study are communication (Duncan and Moriarty, 1998), identity (Lawler, 2008), and society and consumption (Cova, et al. 2007; Featherstone, 1991). These concepts have been introduced and discussed in the previous chapter (refer to Sections 3.3.4, 3.4 and 3.14). They are relevant to this thesis because these theories strengthen the research framework from multiple perspectives. Therefore, using these theories offers advantages in better engaging with the research phenomena.

4.1 Re-statement of the main research problem

More research is needed on brand creators and leaders of organisations and their role in brand identity and internal culture. Previous research has focused on the customers (for example,

Butt and Murtaza, 2011; Gopalani and Shick, 2011; Hogan, et al. 2005; Hu, et al. 2009; Kumar, et al. 2006; Parasuraman, et al. 1991); however, the owners' involvement is just as important in the process of brand creation (Horan, et al. 2011; Ross and Harradine, 2011) since owners are expected to play a leadership role in creating the brand personality (Davies, 2008; Horan, et al. 2011). Building a distinctive brand provides an identity (Davies, 2008) for consumers to relate to; failing to accomplish this may hinder consumers from relating to the brand. Therefore, it is useful to understand the process of building an identity for a brand and to recognise the fundamentals of internal organisational culture for the purpose of generating unique brand identification.

4.2 Theoretical context

This research explores the food and beverage industry from the perspective of owners as they build brand identity and shape the internal activities of their organisation. A qualitative research approach was deemed appropriate given that the study emphasises the exploration of brand creation and the subtle cultural practices and social interactions within an organisation. The theories identified are applied in the exploration process and become the means for probing for answers to the research questions and framing the findings of this research.

While there are theories that provide some guidance in the exploration of building brand identity and the practice of organisational culture (de Chernatony and Cottam, 2008; Mosley, 2007), these theories, individually, need further amplification to address the issues. In the past few decades, leading scholars have developed frameworks to conceptualise brand identity (Aaker, 1996; de Chernatony, 1999; Ghodeswar, 2008; He, Li, & Harris, 2012; Kapferer, 2008). According to these scholars, the concept of brand identity embraced the expression of self-identity and the dynamics of it, as a means of distinguishing and managing brands (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000). Hence, brand creators should elevate the construct of brand identity in order to sustain, grow and stay competitive. In a competitive environment, to be dynamic and different is imperative with the aim of being a reliable reference for consumers (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Such challenges call for new insight into the growth of brand identity.

In the current research, the concern for brand identity is to strengthen the conception of identity by broadening it and incorporating the concept of culture. De Chernatony (1999) also gave emphasis to the significance of values as part of the culture concept and its contribution in support of the desired brand identity. Thus, the onion theory of culture by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) (see Section 4.5) was added to assist in this exploration. It is proposed that there is a significant theoretical gap in the literature regarding brand identity building with reference to internal culture. More particularly, the merging of these two domains may address a gap in the literature that is worthy of investigation. The researcher, therefore, designed a theoretical framework that integrated the theories of brand identity and internal organisational culture to explore and better understand the process of building brand identity and the practice of organisational culture internally.

Using the brand identity prism (Kapferer, 1997) to analyse a product is a straightforward process in creating an identity and image for the product. However, using the brand identity prism for a service brand (or service industries) requires a more delicate approach when applying it in order to satisfy customers, since service brands rely heavily on the quality of service they provide and the interactions they have with their customers. It is also important to note that service brands are exposed to substantial inconsistency since the provision of services involves human interaction. This section identified a gap in the brand identity theoretical framework. Therefore, this research will bridge this gap and provide a deeper perspective on understanding of how service brands might achieve an ideal identity.

4.3 Ideal organisational identity

To have an ideal brand is like having an ideal identity (Balmer and Greyser, 2002). According to Balmer and Greyser, an ideal identity is the optimum positioning of the organisation in its industry over a defined period of time. The advantage of having an ideal brand identity is to strengthen the brand's potential in a competitive environment. Besides an ideal identity, Balmer and Greyser (2002) depict four other identities that can be found in an organisation. First, “**an actual identity** that constitutes the current attribute of the ‘corporation’.” Second, a “**communication identity** that is most clearly revealed through ‘controllable’ corporate communication.” Third, a “**conceived identity** that refers to concepts such as corporate image, corporate reputation and corporate branding.” Fourth, a “**desired**

identity that lives in the hearts and minds of corporate leaders; it is their vision for the organisation.” These four identities are interrelated and do not have to occur in sequence. For example, if these four identities were to apply to a brand such as Adidas, it may present its *actual identity* as a sportswear brand and achieve its *conceived identity* among its consumers as one of the leading sports brands. Adidas is now reaching towards its *desired identity* to be a sustainable organisation, a new strategy to put Adidas above its competitors. Finally, Adidas has its own *communication identity* by using celebrities Justin Bieber and Selena Gomez as icons to communicate the brand. These identities have one goal in common: to send the right message to the brand’s customers. With a strong identity, a brand can be established and competitive in an industry because its customers are able to understand and relate to it.

Identity is an intrinsic matter that is growing, changing and expanding in an organisation. Identity is created based on what the organisation is and is not. Every organisation should be able to recognise their desired identity based on what they are made up of. According to Andriopoulos and Gotsi (2001), “the process of enhancing employees’ identification with the desired identity begins by creating a sense of belonging through various active and passive ‘bonding’ processes” (p. 149). Thus, having the desired organisational identity is essential since it provides a cognitive frame that guides the process of brand identity building.

A better way to understand the essence of brand identity is to explore the brand internally through its personality, culture and self-image (Kapferer, 2008). Consumers often associate with the brands they use as a way to reflect their identity (Ghose, 2002). Consumers also make adjustments to the brand in order to reflect their identities. The association the consumers have with the brand expresses a psychological closeness (between consumers and brand identities) and the more similarities they find, the stronger the association with the brand (Amine, 1998). An organisation needs to be aware of this to avoid falling prey to consumers’ perceptions and demands. Thus, an organisation needs to allow the brand to nurture its individual identity rather than adjusting it to consumers’ perceptions as this may weaken the identity of the brand, as explained metaphorically by Urde (1999):

A person - like a brand - who allows himself to be steered by the opinions of others and who constantly adopts whatever position is most popular does not hold our credibility for long. Always being

agreeable and avoiding hard decisions is not a basis for a strong identity - on the contrary. This form of opportunism is moreover often a sign of weak integrity (p. 121).

Urde added, “[I]n the ambition to be market-oriented, there is a danger that the brand identity will be adapted to an ever greater degree and designed purely to satisfy customers.” Therefore:

... identity research must start from the typical products (or services) endorsed by the brand and the symbol if there is one, the logo, the country of origin, the advertisements and the packaging. The purpose of all this is to semiologically analyse the sending process by trying to discover the original plan underlying the brand’s objectives, products and symbols (Kapferer, 2008, p. 189).

Kapferer also states that some famous brand name creators (for example, Calvin Klein) are not conscious of their brand plan but can tell effortlessly what their brand has or does not have. A brand plan³ is an essential guide for building brand identity that should be derived by the creator of the brand. Again, it is necessary for the creator to understand the brand internally in order to build an ideal identity to be seen externally.

4.4 The brand identity prism

Kapferer’s brand identity prism (1997; Figure 4.1) incorporates attributes useful for understanding brand identity within and beyond the organisation. The prism has been used previously in various research fields as well as in several studies related to brand identity (Azoulay and Kapferer, 2003; Bech-Larsen, et al. 2007; Janonis, et al. 2007; Mulky, 2001; Ponnampalnam, 2007; Roy, 2010; Vukasovic, 2009). In the present study, the researcher brings another dimension to the use of the prism by applying it to the organisational culture field.

³ A brand plan, according to Brownlie and Spender (1995, p. 40) is a guide provided formally through a marketing plan. De Chernatony and Riley (1998) added that when developing a brand plan, managers (owners) must know the relationship they want to build with their customers.

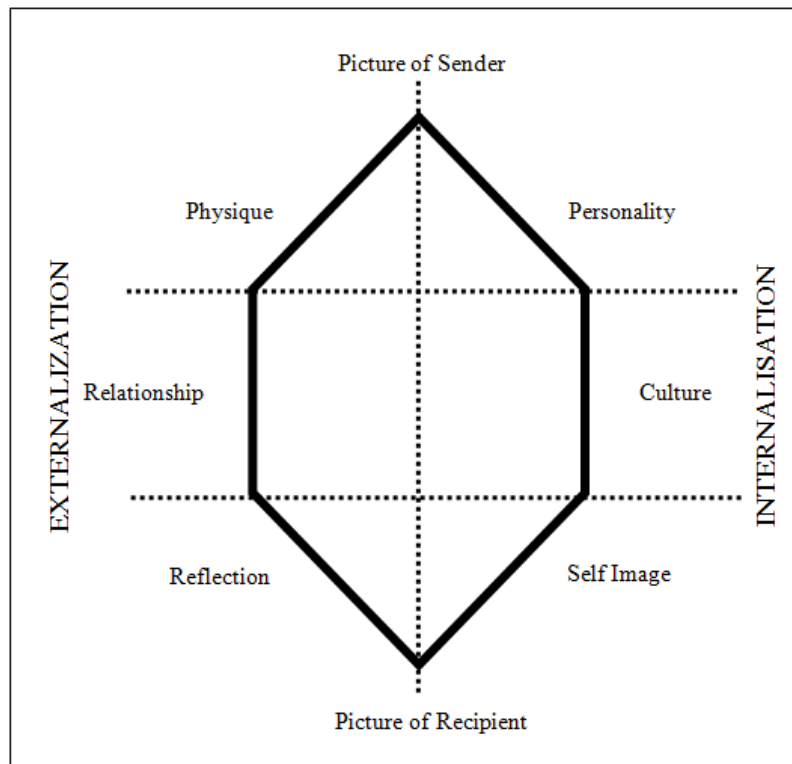


Figure 4.1 : Brand identity prism

Kapferer's (1997, p. 100) prism is represented as a hexagon. Each side of the prism consists of a characteristic of the brand that contributes to building its identity. The prism aims to distinguish one brand from another by exploring each facet. The six facets that make up the prism are: physique, personality, relationship, culture, reflection and self-image. These facets will be used as a guide for the researcher to explore the research field. The brand identity prism was chosen for this research because of its detailed construction and its relevance to the research problem.

The brand identity prism comprises the sender or brand creator (physique and personality) and the receiver or customer (reflection and self-image), with a mechanism (relationship and culture) that connects the sender and receiver. This concept is similar to the communication concept that consists of sender, receiver and medium component. The vertical division of the prism divides the external and internal parts of the brand. The relevance of the prism to this research is that it provides a resilient guide for exploring the internal operations of an organisation, and the 'sender' and 'receiver' sections in the prism represent the 'owners' and

'customers', with the middle section functioning as the mediator in transmitting the message from the sender to the receiver. The mediator in this research refers to the identity and internal culture of the organisation (or brand) that has been created by the brand creator. For example, a cosmetic brand, The Body Shop, is a brand that “differentiated itself from competitors through its ingredients and manufacture” (Mirvis, 1994, p. 87). The Body Shop positions itself as a brand concerned with the environment, and has a strong identity (mediator) that needs to be communicated to the customers:

Respect for the environment is visibly expressed in The Body Shop's statement of principles - under the homey rationale of keeping one's own house in order - in a new version of the three Rs: reuse, refill, recycle. The firm has also created an environmental department, built its own plastics-recycling facility, and reduced fluorocarbon emissions with state-of-the-art machinery (Mirvis, 1994, p. 89).

This represents the identity of The Body Shop, which is also influenced by a strong internal culture and will be the mediator in communicating to The Body Shop's consumers what the brand is about.

As presented in Figure 4.1, the six facets are divided into two parts: external and internal. The external part, seen by customers, is a reflection of the internal part. The internal part plays a very important role in shaping the foundation of the brand and the organisation. Personality, culture and self-image determine the identity and internal culture of a brand. This research focuses on the internal part of the prism and includes the external part, from the owners' point of view, to gain a better insight. The internal part is the starting point for the creation of brand identity, in line with the framing of this study. According to Kapferer:

At birth, a brand is all potential: it can develop in any possible way. With time, however, it tends to lose some degree of freedom; while gaining in conviction, its facets take shape, delineating the brand's legitimate territory (Kapferer, 2008).

Kapferer's approach is analogous to bringing up a child. Right from the womb, there should be intensive care and planning for the child. Bringing up a child is a commitment that requires much detailed attention to shape the child into an ideal human being. A child is also

an individual entity, influenced by its surroundings and reacting to those influences in its everyday activities. Similarly, a brand 'in its womb' should have a plan for its future. The creator must have an ideal perspective of how the brand might be, and mould it accordingly. As Kapferer (2008, p. 189) noted, “a brand is a plan, a vision, a project.” Clearly, Kapferer’s brand identity prism may be of some use in the process of building an ideal brand.

The internal part of the brand identity prism, which consists of personality, culture and self image, provides a foundation from which to examine the identity of a brand. The brand identity prism is used in the present study to understand the facets involved in building an identity for a brand from the beginning of building brand identity, 'right from the womb'. The personality of the brand is usually created from the start by the brand owner. A brand is supposed to own a 'personality' in order to encourage consumers to express themselves, to experience and to reflect the brand (Phau and Kong Cheen, 2000; Viot, 2011). Personality and culture contribute to the building of values (McEnally and de Chernatony, 1999); thus having culture added to the existing personality will enhance the brand identity. Image will be shaped as a consequence from the brand identity and culture (Hatch and Schultz, 1997) and will be interpreted by the consumers.

Therefore, building brand identity is a continuous process that should commence before the brand is born. Personality, culture and self image are all elements that are acquired after the brand has been delivered. Before delivering the brand, it is important to have a cognitive framework for the purpose of creating the brand. The brand identity prism could also be interpreted as if it is a person. What does it want and how does it want to be seen? The conception process is important in order to determine the identity of the brand, the basis of the brand and to make it distinctive in the market. However, a lack of understanding during the conception process of creating a brand may result in an ambiguity in brand identity. Ambiguity happens when the brand concept sends mixed signals, such as not having consistent product packaging or typefaces; the consequences of this will impede the identity of the brand and may negatively affect perception of the brand (Van Rompay, Pruyn and Tieke, 2009). A clear brand identity, derived from a detailed brand conception process, is necessary to avoid brand ambiguity. This research utilised the internal part of the brand identity prism to address brand ambiguity issues. Explanations of the whole prism are given below to provide a better understanding of using the prism.

4.4.1 The sender

The top portion of the prism (Figure 4.2) represents the sender or brand creator, responsible for sending the message about the brand to the receiver (consumer). The sender of the brand represents both a physique and a personality (Kapferer, 1997, p. 100).

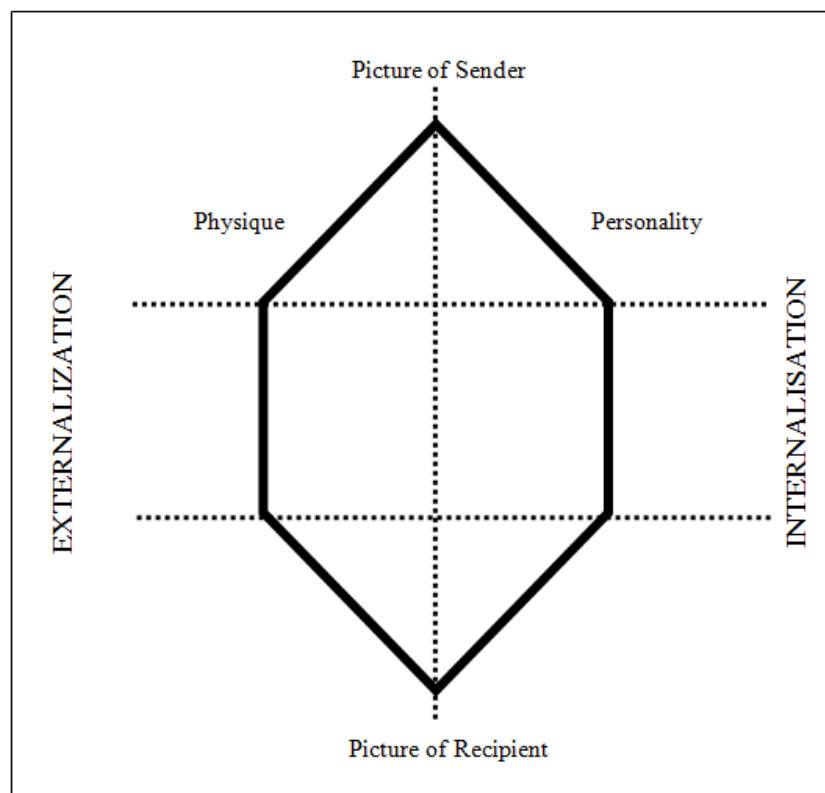


Figure 4.2 : Identity brand prism: picture of sender (top section)

The physique is the physical manifestation of the brand. Physique is what the brand looks like: the design of its products, logo, colour, packaging and shape. The physique demonstrates the strength of the brand and how it positions itself externally through the positioning of the brand. For example, Nike is positioned as a manufacturer of athletic sport shoes and is known internationally. The tick logo of Nike is recognisable by most people and demonstrates that Nike's physique is well transmitted, accepted and recognised by its audience.

In New Zealand, Pak'nSave is a national retail supermarket chain. A distinctive physical aspect of Pak'nSave is the well-known black and yellow corporate theme, which includes its advertising signage on plastic bags. The colour alone is likely to be strongly associated with Pak'nSave. Besides the striking yellow corporate colour, Pak'nSave also presents the personality of Paul Ego, a playful comedian, as their spokesperson (voice), alongside the character that represents the supermarket, Stickman.

The other component of the sender is personality, which comprises the human factors associated with the brand. Personality includes the characteristics and attitudes of the brand, such as having a distinctive concept, being attractive to customers and portraying a sophisticated image. Giving a brand a spokesperson is a good strategy for demonstrating the brand's personality. For example, L'Oreal employed Jennifer Lopez as their spokesperson because her personality is relevant to the brand's range of products: Lopez has created her own vibrant career as a "singer, dancer, actress, songwriter, producer and in complete creative control of her own destiny and image" (Rice, 2010).

The personality of a brand may also be the leader or any individual from the brand; for example, Apple co-founder, the late Steve Jobs. Job's leadership style deeply influenced the Apple brand and "the absence of his personality will be the most problematic. Without its human symbol, the brand will become more vulnerable to competitors" (Taylor, 2011, p. 10). Building a brand largely on the personality of the creator does have an impact on the building of its brand identity. This can be seen from brands such as Virgin (Sir Richard Branson), Facebook (Mark Zuckerberg) and Google (Sergey Brin and Larry Page) (Brownsell, 2009). This study investigates the process of brand identity from the owner's viewpoint; thus, it may also reveal the personality of the owner in relation to the identity of the outlet.

4.4.2 The middle section

The middle section functions as a link between the sender and the recipient (Figure 4.3). The medium comprises two facets: culture and relationships (Kapferer, 1997, p. 100). A detailed explanation of culture has been provided previously in the literature review (Chapter 3, Section 3.8.1).

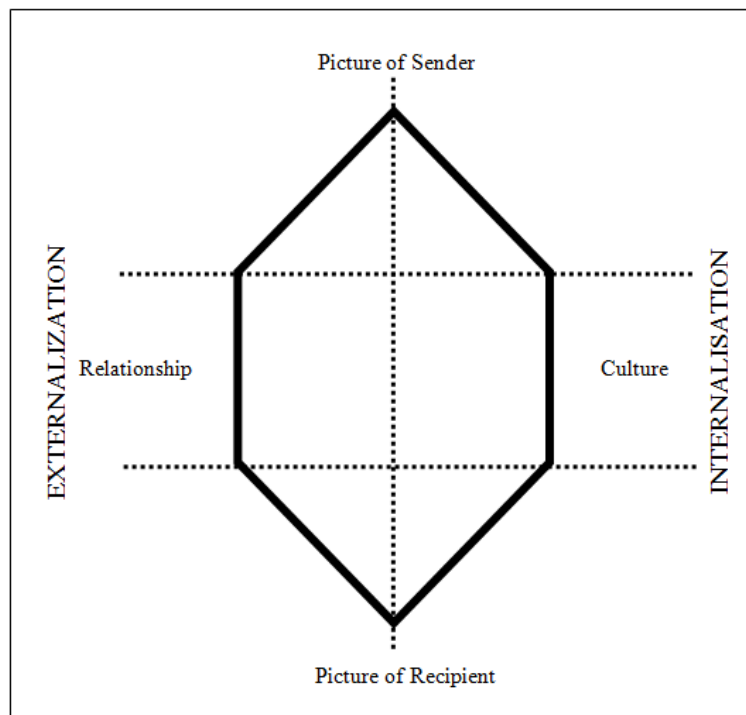


Figure 4.3 : Identity brand prism: between sender and recipient

Culture is what distinguishes the members of one category of people from another (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). Culture is within us; it is made up of the shared values, understanding, and activities that we practise in our daily lives. Culture is learned (Banerjee, 2008), as shared cultural values are transmitted from one generation to another. Culture is a medium of communication from the brand to the public.

According to Kapferer (2008), a “brand is a culture” (p. 184) and plays an essential role in differentiating a brand in accordance with the values that have been instilled by the organisation. Culture, therefore, comprises the internal values of the brand and links the brand to the organisation. Culture is clearly an important component in this prism and in this study. To be in the middle of the prism as the messenger from the sender to the receiver, culture is an important element in differentiating a brand, in building the identity and values of the brand, and the communication of these to the public.

Culture requires values to be implanted into a brand and also into the individuals involved with the brand. With values and brands, the individuals in the organisation are more likely to have stronger associations, motivations and unique attributes that distinguish the brand.

Members of the organisation play necessary roles in initiating and establishing the internal organisational culture. Therefore, the leader of the organisation (and the brand) should focus on educating the members of the organisation with regard to the desired internal culture and values of the brand.

While focusing on employees is an important element in building a strong brand, it is also important to emphasise the internal cultural practices of the brand. These practices help build relationships with the external part of the organisation and the brand - the customer. A resilient and consistent internal culture (for example, offering a warm welcome or having a high quality of service when interacting with the customers) will leave a good impression and the memory of a good experience with the customers. These practices usually have a positive impact on customers and are more likely to build relationships between the organisation and its customers.

Relationship, on the external side of the prism's middle portion, reflects the culture of the brand. The way the employee acts, delivers services and relates to customers in the process of a transaction identifies the brand and builds a relationship with the individual customer (Kapferer, 2008). Thus, relationship is the connection between the people representing the brand and consumers.

4.4.3 The recipient

The final section of the prism comprises the recipient. This section is defined by the consumer's reflections and self-image (Figure 4.4). The consumer receives what has been communicated from the sender (Kapferer, 1997, p. 100).

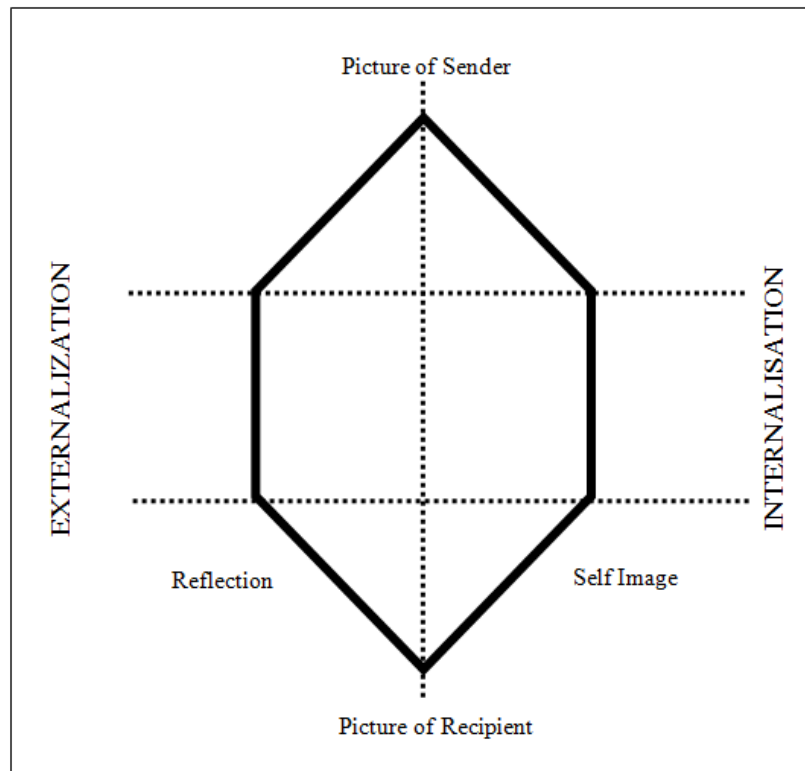


Figure 4.4 : Identity brand prism: picture of recipient (bottom section)

Self-image is how individuals view and evaluate themselves relative to the brand (Graeff, 1996). These views are built internally within the customer. The relationship that a consumer builds with a brand internally will be projected when using that brand. For example, wearing Levi jeans projects an image of being trendy and only wanting the best. Self-image is also about how a person feels while wearing the jeans (for example, “I feel cool in these jeans,”) and how they build a relationship with the jeans and, thus, the brand (for example, wearing them for special occasions). This demonstrates that consumers’ self-image is closely related to the brand through their consumption of the brand.

Reflection, on the external side of the prism, is about how the personality is projected onto the brand and how the consumer wants to be seen when using the product or service. It is a type of identification that consumers have when they use a certain brand. For example, a stylish woman might choose to carry the latest Gucci handbag to reflect a self-image of being wealthy and stylish.

Focusing on the receiver's perception is a must, but it might also result in an exhausted and narrow interpretation of the brand due to an extremely one-sided perception. Balance in attaining views from the internal and external sides of the organisation is necessary to offer a broader perspective in building the brand identity. The challenge for creators and owners in building a strong brand identity is to ensure customers have pleasant experiences with their products and services so that the desired brand reflection and self image is achieved. However, while the creators and owners remain focused on providing for the customer's needs, they might fall prey to a distortion of the strategic vision of the brand (Sheth, Sethia and Srinivas, 2011). Therefore, to avoid a marketing bias towards the receivers (customers), it is essential to have a comprehensive plan for the brand in the process of building its identity, as is explored in this research.

The purpose of this thesis was to examine the identity and internal culture of the organisation using the brand identity prism. To do this, the researcher focused on the internal segment of the prism and examined the facets of personality, culture and self-image of a brand. The process of understanding and examining the facets was useful for the researcher as a preparation for the research field.

4.4.4 The brand identity prism and culture

The brand identity prism constitutes a well-built theory that comprises several factors that a brand should consider in building its identity. The prism demonstrates that these are interrelated and are built to communicate with customers. Brands exist when they communicate; a silent brand is a non-existent brand. The prism connects the facets and also demonstrates the process of communication inside and outside of the organisation.

Communication within an organisation begins when the sender (or brand owner) transmits a message to the recipient (or consumer), allowing the message from the brand owner to be disseminated to the consumers. The external expression of the prism (physical appearance, relationship and reflection of the consumer) echoes the internal side of brand personality, culture and consumer image. For this research, the emphasis will be on the internal part, and culture is one of the core elements in the internal section of the prism. It is also a primary focus of this thesis. According to Kapferer (2008), "the cultural facet refers to the basic

principles governing the brand in its outward signs (product and communication). This essential aspect is at the core of the brand,” (p. 184).

As Kapferer (2008) noted, it is essential to emphasise the cultural facet when discussing the building of brand identity. Each prism element complements the others in building a unique brand identity and connecting to the customers. The researcher agrees with Kapferer that culture in a brand is imperative in moulding the identity of a brand. In fact, culture and identity are both essential in building and distinguishing a brand (de Chernatony, 1999). An example of a brand that has a remarkable culture and identity attached to it is IKEA⁴. Anders Dahlvig, IKEA’s CEO, explained the factors contributing to IKEA’s growth:

Well, first of all, the product range, of course. The fact that the whole IKEA idea was based on the Scandinavian range of furniture, which is out of the Swedish heritage. So Sweden has had a very big role to play. I think another contribution has also been the IKEA values and the IKEA culture. It takes its roots from the Swedish way of managing businesses, which is different from the way they do it in many other countries. The history, the heritage itself, is of importance to any company. You have a base, and it is not just any anonymous company. The Swedish or ‘Smalandish’ history of the company has contributed a lot. (Dahlvig, Kling and Goteman, 2003, p. 33).

IKEA depends heavily on its roots in managing the company. This has provided an advantage for IKEA in being different and one of the leading furniture organisations in the world.

For the culture facet in the prism, no further emphasis has been given by any scholar who has used this prism in their research (refer to Chapter 3, Section 3.2). The current research will address this issue by providing an in-depth exploration of culture and its role in creating the identity of a brand. In order to do this, the researcher adopted and adapted the onion model (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005) as a co-theory to further explore the culture facet.

⁴ IKEA is a privately owned international home products company that designs and sells ready-to-assemble furniture such as beds, chairs, desks, appliances and home accessories.

4.5 The Onion Model

Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) described culture using an 'onion' metaphor, and presented it in an onion model (Figure 4.5). Hofstede and Hofstede said that likening culture to an onion enables a deeper understanding of culture. An onion is made of layers and peeling back the layers brings us to the core. To understand an organisational culture, it is important to identify the basic assumptions, values and beliefs within the organisation. The model embeds components of culture at varying depths to cover, collectively, the total concept of culture. They believe that sharing culture with people in the organisation is a convenient way of re-popularising the organisational cultural views. They define culture as the “unwritten book with rules of the social game that is passed on to newcomers by its members, nesting itself in their minds” (p. 36).

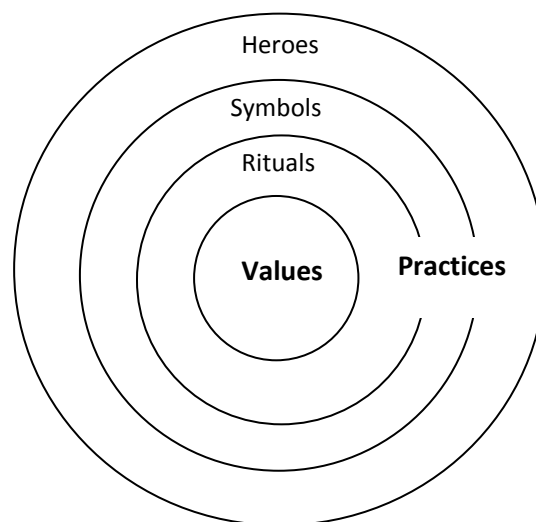


Figure 4.5 : The onion model

The model consists of four layers of concentric circles (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005, p. 35). The outer layer is about heroes. Heroes can be a human, a role model, a figure; they can be alive or dead, real or imaginary. Spiderman, for example, can be a great hero to a child when it comes to saving lives. This is followed by a second layer about symbols. A symbol can be a picture, a logo, words, icons or gestures that represent a meaning. The third layer is about rituals, the regular acts that we practise; for example, greeting people or showing respect to one another. Finally, values constitute the core of culture (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005) because it is the core that holds the other parts together. Values are morals and principles that

we hold and can be demonstrated by, for example, showing respect to those older than ourselves, or the way we conduct ourselves within a community (not interrupting conversations, being polite and never forgetting to say “please” and “thank you”). By practising these courtesies, we make others feel respected and valuable. Values underpin the rituals in an organisation, and the symbols displayed and the heroes portrayed by the organisation. Continuous practise of all three parts (rituals, symbols and heroes), with the addition of the values we hold, will mould into and enhance the culture of the organisation. Rituals, symbols and heroes might experience some adjustment within the organisation; similarly, values evolve and can be revolutionised.

The values of an organisation derive from the leader or the creator of the organisation; therefore, if the leader or creator is still part of the organisation, the values will stand firm. The replacement of the leader might cause a transformation in terms of the values held by the employees. This is because, by the age of ten years, most people have been programmed with basic values, and these values are almost impossible to change thereafter (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). Thus, since leadership and values are linked (Kalargyrou, Pescosolido and Kalargiros, 2012), changing a leader will be likely to have an effect on the organisation’s values.

Values can be defined as desirable acts that transcend a situation. They function as motivational factors for actions and judgements in one’s life. A person’s values are reflected in his or her identity and way of living; for example, in religious beliefs that have been practised since birth. However, adults working for newly-created organisations or joining an existing organisation are not children. This demonstrates that people can, and do, acquire new values or value systems, a process called “acculturation” or a learning process of ideas, values, and behaviours that characterise a group. This view is supported by Alas, Ennulo and Turnpuu (2006, p. 270) who wrote, “Values are acquired informally through the processes of socialisation – interaction with friends, family and colleagues – and from the organisations people work in or belong to”. Hall (2005) defined acculturation as “the process of becoming communicatively competent in a culture we have not been raised in” (p. 270). This process was found to be the core process in this research, starting from the conception of brand identity, through to the fundamental creation of internal culture. It also played a powerful role in integrating both elements in an organisation.

The approach (for example, an internal routine) taken by brand creators in building a brand influences the discovery of brand identity and plays a major role in distinguishing a brand. Brand culture develops from a set of values introduced by the brand creators and the organisations' leaders. The set of values feeds the brand inspiration. Members of the organisation who share the same brand inspiration have a stronger relationship with the brand and what the brand has to offer. This set of values constitutes the fundamental beliefs that every brand should have and hold onto because values play an important role in determining the identity of the brand.

Values in the organisation can be seen in the identity of the brand or the organisation through the way employees work, communicate, interact with customers and solve problems. These values are instilled by the organisational leaders or the creators. Therefore, it is important for the leaders and creators to address the importance of values in daily routines. Through the continuous expression of these values, the organisation is able to perpetuate the fundamentals of the internal organisational culture.

Values and identity relate to one another (Lord and Brown, 2001). Values, as the core of culture within an organisation, are reflected in the identity of the organisation. The discussion of identity within the organisation refers to the perception of members within the organisation and the commonly shared understanding of the organisation's sets of values (Hatch and Schultz, 1997, p. 357). These values need to be nurtured in order to achieve the desired identity for the organisation (Harris, 2007). For example, one can look to Samsung, an electronics and information technology company. Samsung has listed five shared values: people, excellence, change, integrity and co-prosperity (Samsung, 2012). To realise their values, Samsung has identified five principles to assist them (Figure 4.6).



Figure 4.6 : Samsung business principles

The practise of these principles is focused on achieving Samsung's values, and in the process an identity for the Samsung brand will be moulded. These principles are able to educate Samsung employees on the importance of holding onto the values. It is not only about producing good products and providing good services to consumers; beyond that, Samsung wants to be a responsible organisation that values the environment, has a concern for employees' health and safety, maintains the organisational culture and conforms to laws and ethics.

Hence, it can be said that values play an important role in building identity. These two elements (value and identity) constitute the main ingredients in discovering the internal practice of the organisation and in revealing the distinctiveness of the organisation or the brand through constant development. In developing strong values and identity, organisations will likely define their presence and have a stronger association with their customers. Value and identity may strengthen the position of a brand (Lee and Jain, 2009) and hence may also reflect the identity of the brand.

The onion model provides a framework by which a brand can establish its values and internal culture. Every element in the model has its individual function in contributing to the culture of the brand. By peeling back the layers, the brand is able to identify its values and practices (rituals, symbols and heroes) to further define and establish its identity. As noted in Section 4.3.4, culture is essential in building brand identity and thus the onion model is fit to strengthen the culture facet in the brand identity prism.

4.6 Culture and identity

Exploring the identity and culture of an organisation or brand from the perspective of the owner is vital in order to understand the process of creating brand identity. However, in previous research authors have focused on customers' views and experiences rather than those of the owners of the businesses (Aurand, Gorchels and Bishop, 2005; Hogan, et al. 2005; Kumar, et al. 2006; Parasuraman, et al. 1991).

The current study responds to Burman and Zeplin's (2005) suggestion that more research should be carried out on branding within organisations. They suggest an holistic model for internal branding that focuses primarily on brand. According to Burman and Zeplin, the concept of brand is similar to a person who needs to have a consistent identity in order to be known. These authors have put together branding and culture elements to generate a concept of brand commitment in their holistic model (Chapter 1, Section 1.1). This study adopts a similar approach by utilising theories of brand identity and internal organisational culture as a guide in examining the process of building a unique organisation.

Prior to proposing an holistic model of internal branding, it is important to address the basis of the brand in order to understand the it better. Janonis, Dovalien and Virvilait (2007) stated that the conception of brand identity includes "the uniqueness, meaning, aim, values, and personality and provides a possibility to position the brand better, and, thus, achieve the competitive advantage" (p. 70). These elements are necessary in building the identity of a brand. These authors agreed with Kapferer's (2008) argument that brand identity can be defined by answering the following questions:

- What is the brand's particular vision and aim?
- What makes it different?
- What need is the brand fulfilling?
- What is its permanent nature?
- What are its value and values?
- What is its field of competence? of legitimacy?
- What are the signs which make the brand recognisable? (p. 172)

The current researcher adopted parts of these questions into this research to gain a deeper understanding about brands. Asking such questions can help the researcher ensure the brand is coherent, with a single identity, and anchored to its internal culture. Identifying the vision and mission of brand, what makes it different, what it fulfils, the nature of the brand, the brand values, how it is competent, and how is the brand recognisable, will likely help in distinguishing its identity and further define the brand identity.

Why identity and not the image of the brand or the organisation? Brand image refers to how the receiver decodes the message emanating from the brand identity (Kapferer, 2008). Identity, arguably, determines and precedes image (Burmman, Hegner and Riley, 2009; Janonis, et al. 2007; Kapferer, 2008; Vukasovic, 2009). There is no doubt that research on brand identity has increased substantially in the last few years, but such research is still insufficient. The current study emphasises the need for internal brand identity building in order for a business to be more competitive in its industry. Hence, it is necessary for the business to understand and build the identity that the brand or the organisation wants to be seen as externally. This can offer competitiveness, for the brand is also likely to communicate the brand better to the customers.

This section has demonstrated the associations between brand identity and internal culture, and their links to customers. The next section outlines the conceptual model, which consists of three elements: brand identity, internal culture and customers.

4.7 Conceptual model

A model combining perspectives about brand identity and internal culture is proposed and will be used to make sense of the brand identity question. This model draws heavily on Kapferer's (1997, p. 100) brand identity prism and Hofstede and Hofstede's (2005) onion model, as shown in Figure 4.7.

Figure 4.7 exhibits the foundation of building the conceptual model that consists of the internal part of Kapferer's brand identity prism and Hofstede and Hofstede's onion model. The dotted line connecting the culture facet from the prism to the onion model emphasises the link between the two models. The dashed line separates the internal and external parts of the

conceptual model. The conceptual model enables the identification of the associations in this research; it also assists the researcher to explore and understand the research context and provides an overall view of the different elements involved in the current research. Based on the literature review (Chapter 3), these elements (brand identity, internal organisational culture and consumer) are inextricably interrelated; thus, the conceptual model will assist the researcher to address the research questions.

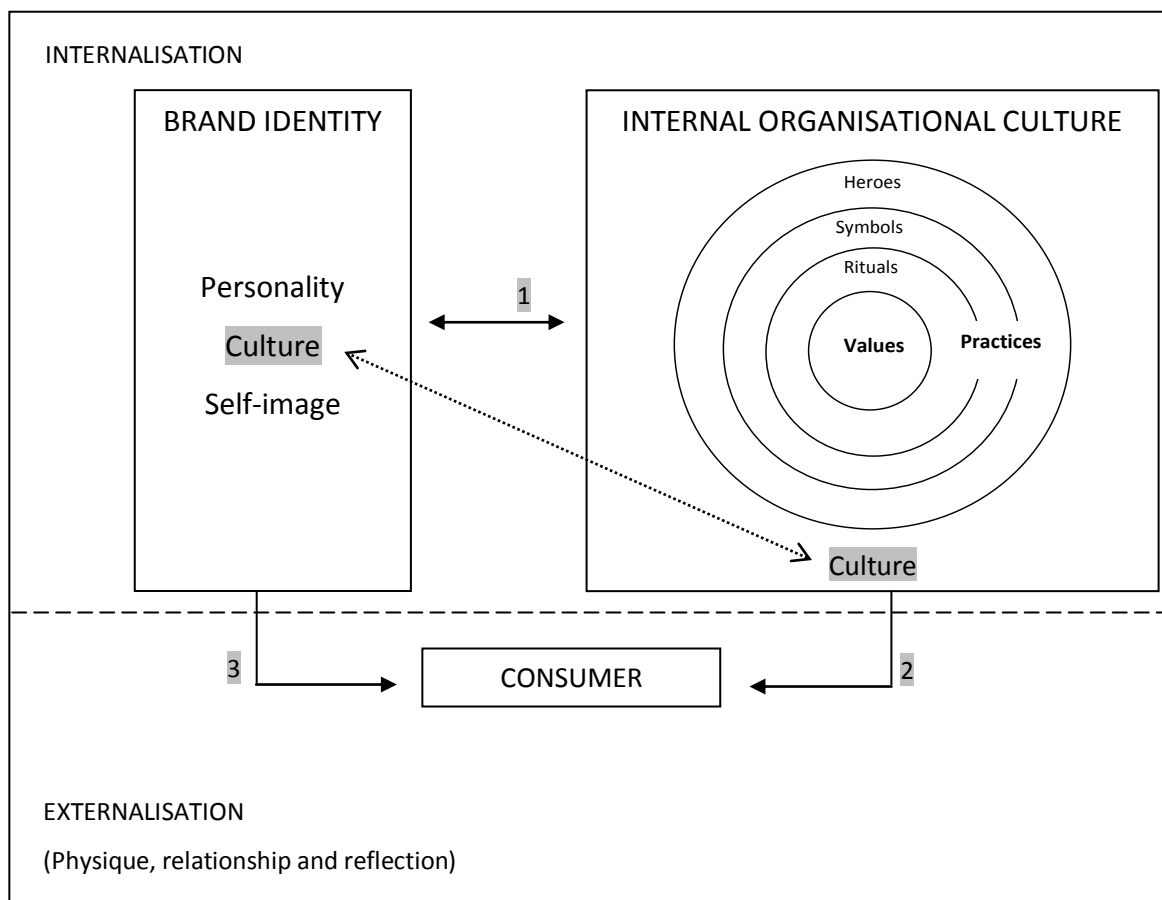


Figure 4.7 : Foundation of the conceptual model

The conceptual model has three main emphases: 1) the relationships between and among the internal organisational culture; 2) brand identity; and 3) the consumer. To understand the association between these elements from the inside, this research sought the owners' perspectives, supported by the related internal resources, using the tools of field observation, and incorporating artefacts and images. The conceptual model is divided into two parts: internal and external. It is from these constructs that an understanding of the associations

between brand identity and internal organisational culture can be developed. The association of these internal elements is reflected to the consumer (external) through the establishment of brand identity and the exercise of internal organisational culture, as shown in Figure 4.7.

Brand identity and internal organisational culture are associated through the cultural component that exists in both domains. As emphasised above, culture is one of the facets in the brand identity prism (Kapferer, 1997), while the Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) model focuses on it. Each of the three relationships presented in the conceptual model will be examined more thoroughly below.

4.7.1 Brand identity and internal organisational culture

The first relationship links brand identity to the internal organisational culture. The internal organisational culture is thought to have an influence on a brand (Mosley, 2007; Schultz, 2002; Yaniv and Farkas, 2005), as brands express the culture in which they originated (Janonis, et al. 2007). Activities or common practices within an organisation will likely be reflected in how they treat their customers. For example, Honda focuses on the basics of its business, which is to provide for its customers' needs with flexibility and efficiency (Sonoda, 2002). It is Honda's philosophy to ensure global satisfaction by producing the highest quality products for worldwide customer satisfaction (Honda, 2012). The founder of Honda, Soichiro Honda, promoted the tagline, "Power of Dreams" as a visionary principle and guide for the organisation to provide the best quality of product and service to their customers. Businesses providing Honda services can be found all over the world; there are, conceivably, thousands of them, dealing with marketing and maintaining Honda products. The on-going provision of the best internal service influences the image and establishes and reinforces the identity of the brand. Honda demonstrates the efficiency of employees in delivering Honda's promise to the customers. The continuation of the efficient and highest quality service has developed as a consequence of Honda's internal organisational culture. This research will offer deeper explanations for the basic relationship between the internal organisational culture and brand identity by utilizing brand identity theory and culture theory.

Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000) suggested that brand identity drives brand strategy. Therefore, brand strategy should be able to deliver the promise made by the brand's identity

through its internal culture and should be communicated “consistently, efficiently and effectively” within the organisation (Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000). Consistent, efficient and effective communication is likely to be achieved via the internal culture and a clear brand identity formed.

Urde (1999, p. 122) clarifies the relationship between brand identity and the internal operation of an organisation, and how it communicates to potential customers:

Ideally, this brand identity is experienced by customers as valuable and unique and becomes difficult for competitors to imitate. In this way, the brand can become a competitive advantage and an expression of an intention. This means that the company deliberately and actively strives to manage the processes that give the brand value and meaning. When the company's objective is to create competitive advantage in the form of brands, they can no longer become a response to customers' wants and needs. The brand becomes a symbol in an ongoing interaction between the company and its customers.

This demonstrates the process of instilling values and meaning into brand identity, via the internal culture, to ensure the brand has a competitive advantage. This implies that, through the expression of internal culture, the brand has been able to build its own niche, its own brand identity.

4.7.2 Internal organisational culture and consumers

The second relationship is between the internal organisational culture and its consumers. The internal organisational culture plays an important role in retaining consumers (Bellou, 2007; Berry, 1995; Jevons, et al. 2005; Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2009). In services marketing, it is important for employees to give their best service to customers because service marketing relies greatly on the communication between employees and customers.

An excellent example of an organisation that values training for their employees is the Walt Disney company. Walt Disney, in their employee training programme, ensures that their guests receive the best service from the employees' shared organisational values. It is essential to develop shared organisational values among members of the organisation about

customer service and service quality to avoid dissatisfying customers (Wasmer and Bruner II, 1991). Every member of an organisation should be practising the shared organisational values in order to provide consistent, high quality service to the customers.

Customer relationship management is another relevant tool used by organisations to achieve customer satisfaction. It is an integrated approach to manage the associations of organisational culture and customers (Dimitriadis and Stevens, 2008; Mosley, 2007). Leaders who are sensitive to the needs of customers are also concerned with the service provided to them and the practices of their employees.

When leaders and employees learn to integrate internal culture and communicate it during their relationships with customers, they will be in a better position to provide better service for their customers and have satisfied customers. However, a methodical approach is required in order to have the practice in place and consistent. This research aims to explore the association of these two elements and provide suggestions for a suitable approach.

4.7.3 Consumers and brand identity

The last relationship links consumers and brand identity. Perceptions of brands are developed when a consumer experiences a brand (Albert, et al. 2008; de Chernatony, 1999; Jevons, 2005; Klaus and Maklan, 2007; Mosley, 2007; Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2009). Various factors contribute to brand perceptions, including brand identity. Srivastava (2011) argued that brand identity is the creation of internal practices and it is therefore from the internal practice that consumers' perceptions are developed. The experience of the consumer determines whether the perception of a brand is positive or negative.

Brand perception is driven by the brand's promise (Yaniv and Farkas, 2005). Yaniv and Farkas stated that when the promise is delivered to consumers, it strengthens the brand perception and consequently strengthens the brand position and reflects the identity of the brand (Boatwright, et al. 2009). The process of communication (from sender to receiver) assists in delivering the brand promise and determining, partly or fully, the brand expectations of the customers (Burmman, et al. 2009). Thus, communication is also the key in reflecting the brand identity to consumers through the brand promise.

Communication with the consumer can be achieved in many ways. One way is through direct communication, such as word-of-mouth. Till and Heckler (2009) also suggested the use of consumer promotions (such as flyers, coupons, contests, buy-one-get-one free offers, special trial sizes) to stimulate consumer behaviour and engage them with the brand to build and sustain the identity of the brand among consumers.

Therefore, building brand identity is important, as it represents the parts of the organisational culture that are manifested through the relationships between brand identity, the organisation and the consumer. The integration of these three elements has an impact on the process of producing a unique service outlet. Emphasis on the internal side of the organisation, that is, on the building of brand identity and organisational culture, is needed in order to communicate effectively to the customers.

4.8 Summary

Selection of the brand identity prism by Kapferer (1997) and the inclusion of the onion model by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) as the basis for building a conceptual model offered an established foundation for this research. While Kapferer insisted on the importance of culture in building brand identity, a lack of emphasis had been given to this particular matter previously. The onion model of Hofstede and Hofstede will help in bridging the gap. Besides the conceptual model (Section 4.7), three research questions were posed in Chapter 1 (Section 1.4) designed to explore and develop an understanding of culture and its contribution to building brand identity.

In this study, the researcher has emphasised the internal aspects of the brand identity prism, with a particular focus on culture. A theory of culture was presented, using the onion model developed by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) to strengthen the investigation of culture and its role in building brand identity. The amalgamation of these two theories (brand identity and internal culture) has been explained in order to advance the understanding of each theory individually, and further to offer a wider platform for strengthening and understanding of the branding concept by aligning these two theories.

Chapter 5: Methods

This study uses a qualitative approach. It focuses on a combination of the process of creating brand identity and the internal culture of an organisation. The researcher explores and attempts to understand the brand and the organisation through its daily routines and values, and the thoughts and insights of the brands' owners. The way they do things in the organisation is also an important part of this research, in order to identify the internal culture of the organisation.

Exploring and understanding brand identity and internal culture involves familiarisation, interaction, observation, and self-experience of the particular setting. The qualitative approach chosen for this study was heavily based on Creswell's (2003) "phenomenological study" orientation, which is described as a useful tool to examine, comprehend and illustrate the experience of an individual or a group with a specific phenomenon. Strauss and Corbin (1990) also suggested choosing an approach that was suitable to the nature of the research setting. Taylor and Bogdan (1998) emphasised that when choosing an appropriate method, it should align with the nature of the research:

The term methodology refers to the way in which we approach problems and seek answers. In the social sciences, the term applies to how research is conducted. Our assumptions, interests, and purposes shape which methodology we choose. When stripped to their essentials, debates over methodology are debates over assumptions and purposes, over theory and perspective (p. 3).

Since the study focused on internal culture, it was appropriate to have a method that was able to provide a complex textual description of a situation that involved human beings and the range of their experiences (Keegan, 2009). This study aimed to discover and understand in depth the research context (as explained in Chapter 2) and the individual involved (Esterberg, 2002) in order to augment the theory (brand identity and internal organisational culture) discussed elsewhere in this thesis. Chandler and Owen (2002) agree that a qualitative approach is particularly suited for brand research, since it enables deeper insights into problem-solving through its richer methods of articulating the research matter: in the case of

this study, the identity of a brand and the observation of everyday behaviour or practices. The qualitative method offered the researcher the flexibility required in order to address the research questions for this study.

The researcher chose instruments such as face-to-face interviews, participant observation, field notes and image interpretation for the purpose of data gathering. Through these instruments, the researcher obtained an understanding of why certain behaviours occurred and how these took place in the research context.

5.1 A description of qualitative research

American sociology appears to be the birthplace of the qualitative method. The approach began during the period 1910 to 1940 when various research methods were associated with the University of Chicago. Most of the qualitative research in this era involved participant observation, in-depth interviews and personal documents (Taylor and Bogdan, 1998).

The qualitative research approach is especially well-suited to assist a researcher when the process involves the complexities of people, their feelings and why they do things in a certain way. The borders of this approach are wide and frequently indistinct; therefore, the researcher is required to be attentive to the field research. There are three major components of qualitative research according to Strauss and Corbin (1990, p. 20), as shown in the figure below.

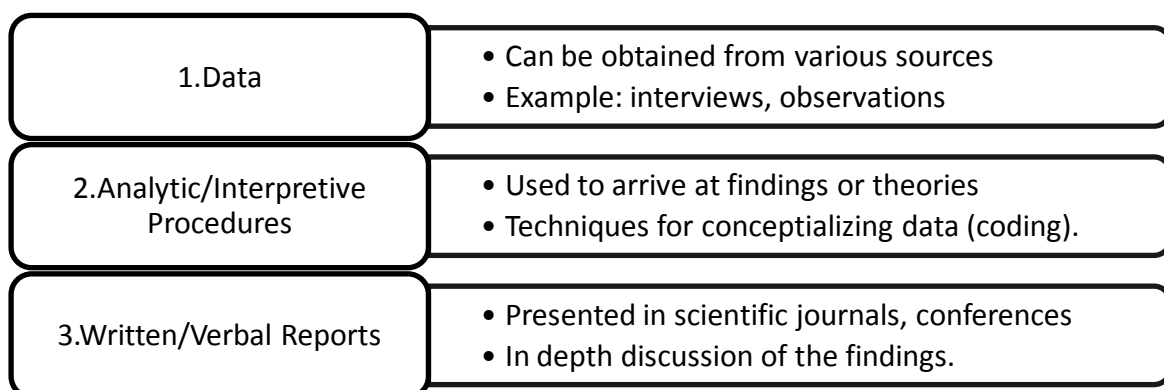


Figure 5.1 : Three components of qualitative research

The researcher used the first and second components (data [collection] and analytic/interpretive procedures) in this study to gain an understanding of the field setting and later to analyse the findings. The second component was used to interpret the data in depth and discuss the findings, which will be presented in Chapter 7. The third component was the component of this thesis: compiling all data and presenting it in an in-depth discussion of the findings and their relationships to the theory involved.

Qualitative research commences with a curiosity about the world and has the ability to study phenomena happening everywhere (Silverman, 2006). The diversity offered in qualitative research as described by Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) influenced the choice of this method; “[Q]ualitative research is research that involves analysing and interpreting texts and interviews in order to discover meaningful patterns descriptive of a particular phenomenon” (p. 3).

A ‘phenomenon’ is a fact or event that happens in nature or in a society (Hornby, 1995). This definition parallels Kirk and Miller’s (1986) idea that a ‘phenomenon’ is observing and participating with people in their own space, suggesting that qualitative research should be “‘naturalistic,’ ‘ethnographic,’ and ‘participatory,’” (p. 9). Kirk and Miller also add:

The assumptions underlying the search for objectivity are simple. There is a world of empirical reality out there. The way we perceive and understand the world is largely up to us, but the world does not tolerate all understandings of it equally (p. 11).

Silverman (2006) points out that a deeper study of phenomena is missing in quantitative research because of its operational approach and the concern with establishing correlations between variables. The present research is less concerned with statistical testing, focusing instead on the character of the phenomena. Such an orientation is better aligned with the qualitative approach and Silverman’s (2006) method of gaining a deeper understanding about the setting of the quantitative and qualitative approaches. In relation to this study, the researcher used Silverman’s approach to investigate the phenomenon more thoroughly through a qualitative approach and to find out how certain phenomena happened through knowing the naturally occurring data in the participating society and the events happening; for example, in this study it was the routine in the outlet, the customer-owner interactions and

the ambience. The response from the individuals involved in this research will likely explain how these events happened and the interpretation behind them.

The phenomenologist, according to Taylor and Bogdan (1998, p. 10), views human behaviour as “what people say and do, as a product of how people define their world”. In our daily lives we have numerous interactions with people and our surroundings. For this research, the surroundings will be in the food and beverage industry. Curiosity about the interactions and activities in this industry motivated the researcher to look deeper into the context in order to comprehend the events happening within it. The researcher also attempted to interpret the phenomena within the research context (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994) and to know the meanings behind the internal operations in the food and beverage industry. The personal understanding and insights gained by the researcher regarding the phenomenon were pivotal to this study.

Undertaking research is a way of learning and experiencing new knowledge. In order to do this, the researcher needs to understand the context and be able to theorise. Theory is an explanation of an event or action made by an individual in a social context (Silverman, 2006). Therefore, the researcher needs to be able to theorise about the situation and have the skills to interpret the social world. Since this research is conducted in a social research context, the researcher needs to connect the theories identified in Chapter 4 with the empirical world, as they are strongly related (Esterberg, 2002). It is essential for the researcher to gain knowledge about and acceptance of the various legitimate methods of qualitative research and to focus on the appropriate customs in doing the research (Dickie, 2003). This researcher designed several methods in order to produce exhaustive field research protocols.

5.2 Phenomenological study

In order to understand the research field in greater depth, the researcher used a phenomenological approach for this study. Creswell (2003) stated that the main purpose of phenomenology is to examine, comprehend and illustrate the experience of an individual or a group with a specific phenomenon. The focus of this approach was to explore and understand what the experience means to those involved in the field. As Keegan (2009) pointed out, “phenomenologists argue that the world can only become known through experience and

intuition” (p. 145). Keegan elaborates on this by looking at our daily lives, which comprise rules and habits that become norms and shape our perception and ways of thinking (culture) without realising it. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) provide a justification for a focus on the organisation and its functioning:

... organisational cultures are a phenomenon by themselves, different in many respects from national cultures. An organisation is a social system of a different nature than a nation, if only because the organisation’s member usually did not grow up in it. On the contrary, they had a certain influence in their decision to join the organisation, are only involved in it during working hours, and will one day leave it (p. 35).

The phenomenological approach requires both descriptive and interpretive components (Liamputtong and Ezzy, 2005; Punch, 2005). Both approaches (Table 5.1) were applied in this study; the researcher looked at the owners’ experiences in establishing their coffee shops and brands, and the values they believed should be reflected in their operations.

Table 5.1 : Descriptive and interpretive approaches in this study

	Focus	In the context of this study
Descriptive	Focusing on describing what we may reasonably know	Customers go to their preferred coffee shops because they feel comfortable and are happy with the service they experience
Interpretive	Focusing on describing and interpreting human experience	What are the features that make the customers feel comfortable and happy?

5.3 Symbolic interactionism

Since the researcher was undertaking face-to-face interviews with the respondents, it was necessary to understand the methods of interpretation used by symbolic interactionism. Taylor and Bogdan (1998) acknowledged the perception of symbolic interactionism in engaging with phenomenological perspectives, as presented in this study. The following explanation of symbolic interactionism is based on Blumer’s (1969) interpretation, with some

influence from George Herbert Mead, the founder of the symbolic interactionism perspectives. Blumer (1969) divided symbolic interactionism into three premises:

Human beings act towards things based on the meanings they have for them

Meaning is taken for granted and treated as unimportant when it happens as a result of a certain action. According to Blumer, a psychologist, sees that stimuli, attitudes, conscious or unconscious motives, various kinds of psychological inputs, perception and cognition, and various features of personal organisation influence human behaviour and the way people react to things.

In contrast, sociologists see social position, status demands, social roles, cultural prescriptions, norms and values, social pressures and group affiliations as having an influence on human behaviour. The meanings that are constructed by human beings from the things they see or do are central in their own right.

Meaning is derived from social interactions

Blumer states that there are two well-known traditional ways of accounting for the origin of meaning. First, process is not necessarily involved in its formation and interpretation. For example, a coffee shop is clearly always a coffee shop. Secondly, meaning is assigned by the person who is familiar with the environment. The person might have been influenced by the ambience, feelings, ideas, memories, motives and attitudes that derive from his/her psyche, mind or psychological organisation when interpreting meanings in social interactions. Blumer (1969) gives the example of prostitution, where people's perceptions will differ based on the process involved in transferring their feelings and views on the matter.

The interpretative process

An action is a result of an interpretative process within a human being. This process has two distinct steps. First, the actor (in the present case, the owner) indicates the act that he or she is undertaking and points out the meaning behind it. The interaction process is part of the psychological element involved when a person is communicating with himself. Second, in the process of communicating with oneself an interpretation of meaning occurs. It is essential to see the meaning of the action after completing the self-interaction process, since meanings are used in the formation of actions.

5.4 Ethnographic technique

An ethnographic technique is also applied in this study. The ethnographic approach was chosen because it facilitates an understanding of the research setting beyond the accumulated thoughts of the respondents (Kelly and Gibbons, 2008). According to Aganoff (2006), “A good ethnographer is someone who actively seeks to discover what it means to belong to a social group by employing a variety of methods” (p. 115). Hammersly and Atkinson (1983) explained the characteristics of ethnographic data in detail. According to them,

“[T]he data are specifically sought to illuminate research questions, and are carefully recorded; and where the process of analysis draws on previous studies and involves intense reflection, including the critical assessment of competing interpretations. What is involved here, then, is a significant development of the ordinary modes of making sense of the social world that we all use in our mundane lives, in a manner that is attuned to the specific purposes of producing research knowledge” (p. 4).

Keegan (2009) adds “Ethnography is about understanding a social and cultural context from the insider’s perspective: that is, understanding how the group being studied interprets the world” (p. 89). Ethnography can also “be any full or partial description of a group as a means of identifying common threads, whether these be religion, social relationships or management style” (Goulding, 2005, p. 299). There are various concepts of ethnography (Alvesson and Deetz, 2000) needed to comprehend the various types of exploration. For this study, the researcher has adopted and applied Desai’s (2002) **commercial ethnographic** research approach:

- A focus on the social and cultural contexts of peoples’ actions and beliefs; looking at people as whole individuals, rather than compartmentalized consumers;
- Seeing the world from the points of view of the participants, and avoiding imposing the researchers’ cultural frameworks;
- Allowing people to use their own language to describe their world;
- Looking at behaviour in the place and time in which it actually occurs;
- A long term involvement with the individuals or group;
- The use of a range of data collection methods, including interviews, group discussions, informal conversations and observations of behaviour, and also the inclusion of cultural artefacts as part of the data (e.g. photographs, films, drawings) (p. 15)

The above emphases were applied wherever necessary during the research. These steps helped the researcher to detach from the research field in order to reduce bias in observations. They also allowed the researcher to see how “participants give meaning to their behaviour and attitudes within their everyday environment” (Keegan, 2009, p. 90).

5.5 Case study elements

The researcher adopted aspects of a case study in carrying out this inquiry. Babbie (2004) defined a case study as “the in-depth examination of a single instance of some social phenomenon” (p. 298). Phenomena can be activities that are going on within a family, a village or an organisation. Similarly, for this study the researcher studied the phenomenon of how employees in an outlet interact and communicate. Gerring (2007) defined a case study as “the intensive study of a single case where the purpose of that study is – at least in part – to shed a light on a larger class of cases (a population)” (p. 17).

A case study can vary from an individual to an incident, small group, organisation, policy or nation (Punch, 2005). The advantage of incorporating a case study approach was that the researcher was able to acknowledge the three pillars of a qualitative approach: that is, to describe, understand and explain (Yin, 1994). Figure 5.2 shows the steps that need to be taken in conducting a case study, based on Yin’s (1994, p. 49) case study method.

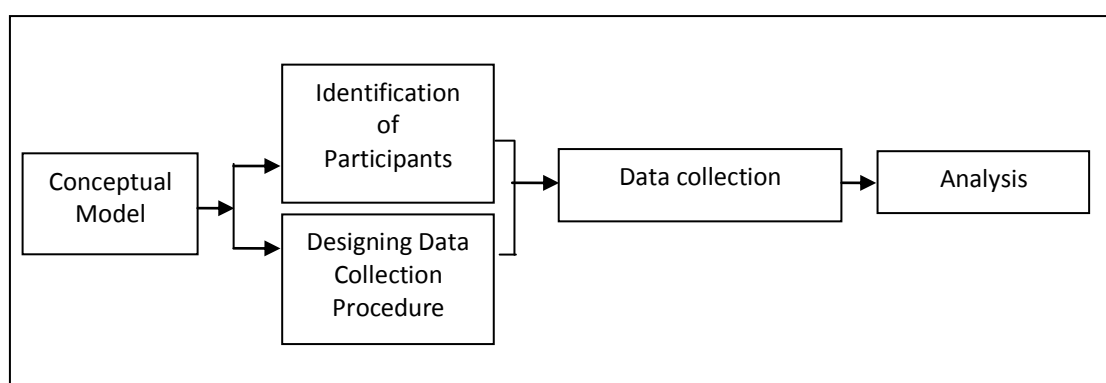


Figure 5.2 : Adaptation from Yin’s case study method

5.6 Research setting

In Chapter 2, the researcher indicated that the context of this research was the food and beverage industry. The food and beverage industry was chosen because of its potential for social science investigation (Fine, 2001) and the competitiveness in the industry (English, 1996). After studying the hierarchy of the food and beverage industry, the context of the research was refined to the coffee shop to give a focus to the research context (see Chapter 2). An exploratory observation programme was completed prior to choosing this context. Gaining an holistic understanding of the research setting helped the researcher design a better research framework for exploring and understanding the concept of brand identity and internal organisational culture. Thus, choosing a research setting in a competitive industry such as food and beverage assisted the researcher in investigating the features and processes involved in building identity and internal culture practices.

The researcher commenced observations and experiences in the café scene in Christchurch, New Zealand, in March 2008. At that stage, the researcher had not yet decided to use coffee shops as the main setting for this research. Other service industries such as educational institutions, medical institutions, and small and medium enterprise retail outlets were also considered as potential research settings due to their fast growth and suitability for this study. However, the researcher found that coffee shop outlets offered the best setting for this research, especially in terms of providing trouble-free entrance (Taylor and Bogdan, 1998). As Johnson (1975) put it: “First, the achievement of successful entree is a precondition for doing the research. Put simply, no entry no research.”

In addition, food and beverage industry outlets must deal with a very high level of competitiveness in order to survive in the industry. Auty (1992) noted more than fifteen years ago in her study of consumer choice and restaurant segmentation, that

... restaurateurs suited their own inclinations in running their restaurants rather than taking note of the competition in the area. If their style did not suit a regular set of diners, they went out of business rather than making dramatic changes. Changes tended to be in small increments, like adding garlic bread to the menu. Proprietors on the whole denied being competitive, though they admitted keeping an eye on what similar restaurants were doing. None could remember changing their way of doing business in response to a competitor's action, but at the same time they were

quite sure that any innovative action of theirs would be copied. In short each respondent was sure that he/she had a unique and winning style that appealed to a specific set of customers. In a sense they are selling their own personalities rather than plates of food (p. 325).

The reluctance to make significant changes and be competitive with the other “players” in the industry has trapped owners or leaders of restaurants and this has prevented them from moving forward and securing a more stable position in the industry. English (1996) described the intensity of business competition, which has a strong impact on restaurant performance and is relevant to the current situation:

... quick service, family style, casual dining and fine dining establishments. The findings indicate that the level of intense competition was a strong factor in business failure. Even though this study did not calculate the breadth and cumulative impact of differing styles of restaurant, the presence of other restaurants certainly gave the consumer a wide range of choices. Hence these restaurants served as direct (e.g. same style of restaurant) and indirect (e.g. different style of restaurant) forms of competition (pp. 17-20).

While the above observation was made in 1996, the relevancy to the current food and beverage industry is still high, as shown below:

Therefore, this industry is highly complex and requires constant attention, since it is perhaps the service industry in which macroeconomic changes are reflected clearer. To enhance its competitiveness and accomplish the expectations of customer demands and expectations, it is necessary for these types of companies to generate managerial schemes and practices based on knowledge that increases their capabilities and allows them to participate equally or superiorly with its competitors (Sanchez-Gutierrez, et al., 2011, p. 137).

Thus, it can be concluded that the food and beverage industry was an appropriate research setting for this study due to its complexity, the need for constant attention in order to be an active competitor in this industry and the need to have a proactive approach to optimising service quality.

5.6.1 Background: the story behind the coffee shop setting

Many social science researchers draw on past biographies and life situations; in fact, a great deal of sociology is grounded in past experience (Lofland, Snow, Anderson, and Lofland, 2006). Equally, academic interest and intellectual curiosity may provide the motivation for engaging in a certain field of study. As a regular “café hunting” person over the past ten years, the researcher has made innumerable visits to independent coffee shops on her own and also in groups. In her home country, the researcher went to various types of contemporary and ethnic coffee shops and has experienced the different services offered in these shops. Experiencing coffee shops in New Zealand, however, gave the researcher a new perspective on the services offered in coffee shops.



Figure 5.3 : A typical traditional coffee shop in Malaysia⁵.

Figure 5.3 shows a typical traditional coffee shop in Malaysia. This type of coffee shop is found in rural areas but is rare in urban areas. A traditional coffee shop, as portrayed in the picture, serves traditional food and locally made coffee or tea and usually has regular customers from the locality. This picture was taken from a family friend’s album during a visit to Langkawi, Malaysia.

⁵ Photo used with permission of the owner.



Figure 5.4 : A famous Chinese ethnic coffee shop in Malaysia

Oldtown White Coffee, shown in Figure 5.4, is a famous ethnic Chinese-origin coffee shop based in Malaysia. They have strong collaborations worldwide and are still expanding. Customers from all ethnic groups in Malaysia can be seen coming to this coffee shop regularly to catch up with family and friends. Customers may indulge in a diverse range of traditional Malaysian foods. They also sell a range of hot and cold coffee drinks, besides their own coffee bean mix. Both pictures were taken from the official website of OLDTOWN White Coffee.



Figure 5.5 : An urban style coffee shop in Kuala Lumpur, the capital of Malaysia⁶.

Figure 5.5 above was taken at The Sphere, Bangsar South, Kuala Lumpur. San Francisco Coffee is a growing coffee outlet in Malaysia. From a single store in 1997, San Francisco

⁶ This picture was downloaded from the official San Francisco Coffee website.

Coffee now has 27 outlets in Malaysia and Singapore. San Francisco Coffee is an example of a western influence of urban-style coffee shops in the Pacific Rim.

These photos illustrate the coffee shop scene in Malaysia, the country where the researcher became familiar with coffee shops. However, since the researcher was now a resident in Christchurch, the city where this field work took place, she was able to explore by immersing herself in, and becoming part of, the research context. During these visits, the researcher observed the activities happening in the setting and the ambience of the setting (for example, greetings and the feelings upon entering the café). These preliminary observations provided the basis for selecting this context and also for designing the research method. Some of the images taken by the researcher while exploring the coffee shop scene in Christchurch are shown in Figure 5.6.

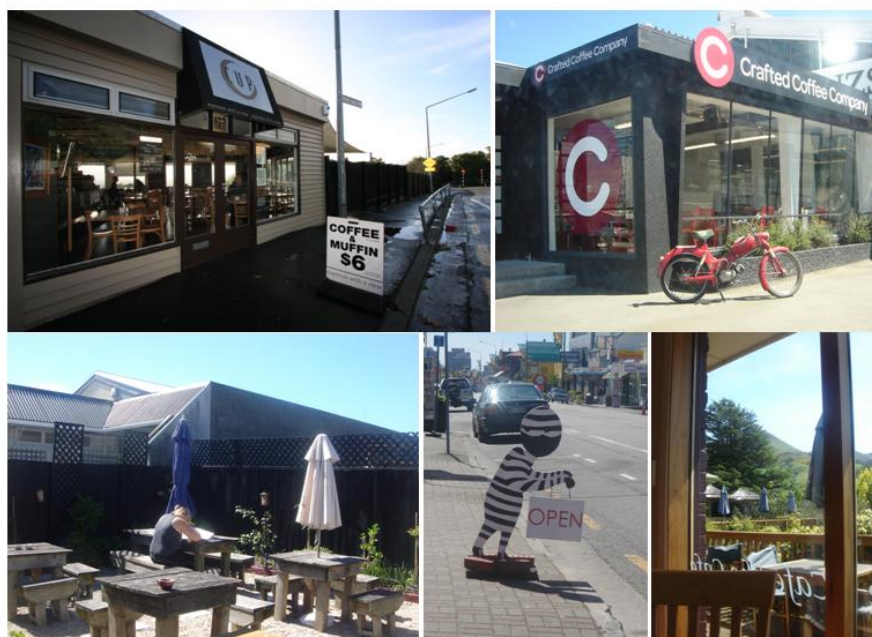


Figure 5.6 : Coffee shops in Chrischurch, New Zealand

5.7 Sampling

The researcher decided to use multiple sampling techniques, including purposive sampling, snowball sampling and opportunistic sampling to choose the participants. Qualitative research did not require large samples; generally only a few data records, certainly not hundreds.

For this research, participants were selected by utilising purposive sampling; that is, individually owned coffee shops. A list of independent coffee shops (ICS) in Christchurch was downloaded from various websites that promoted well known coffee shops in Christchurch. *dineout.co.nz*, *finda.co.nz* and *newzealandcoffeeguide.co.nz* were consulted by the researcher to identify potential participants. Fifteen independent coffee shop owners in the sample agreed to participate.

5.8 Sample size and saturation

The sample is composed of 15 independent coffee shops. Though the sample size is limited, it has provided sufficient data to respond to the research questions. Patton (2002, p 230) noted that “qualitative inquiry typically focuses in depth on relatively small samples, even single cases (n=1), selected purposely”; such is the situation in the typical case study, for example. Samples for qualitative studies thus are generally much smaller than those used in quantitative studies. There are no firm guidelines for sample size in qualitative research (Patton, 2002). Richards (2005) argues:

Well designed qualitative research projects are usually small, the data detailed and the techniques designed to discover meaning through fine attention to content of texts and images (p. 20)

The current small sample therefore is suitable for exploring the research context in detail, whereas a large sample would likely be inconsequential (Myers, 2000). Crouch and McKenzie (2006, p. 484) also note that “interview-based studies involving a small number of respondents are becoming more common in social science”. It is the nature of qualitative study that researchers sacrifice “breadth for depth”. They are often concerned with the understanding of the phenomena in great detail (Esterberg, 2002) and this was the emphasis of this study.

The present small sample was justified by the fundamental rationale of purposive sampling, where subjects were deliberately chosen with a tight focus on central characteristics of interest. Here that meant concentrating on highly motivated, independently-minded individuals striving to build a unique brand in a very competitive marketplace. This sampling strategy allowed the researcher to be involved in the research context/environment with small scale non-franchise coffee shops, thereby reducing the variation that would likely have

occurred were all forms of shops sampled. Particular to this study, purposive sampling assures the in-depth, focused collection of data.

The value of understanding the phenomena develops from the detailed study of a deliberately chosen sample of individually owned outlets, determined by the degree to which each "fits and works" with the perspectives of participants (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). The collection of data here was reasoned to be best conducted in the environment in which brand building phenomena naturally occurred. The methods were chosen particularly because they were accommodating to the participants, given the intense, time-pressured nature of their eventful daily routines (Shaw, 1999, p. 484). Thus, this strategy was able to provide more depth during the field research, when and where the subjects were available.

Saturation, as suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1998), is a "matter of degree" (p. 136). This is when the researcher, after examination of the data, reaches a point where the content attained has become repetitive and so does not add any additional conceptual richness to the analysis (Charmaz, 2006; Silverman, 2011; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). This view is similar to Bowen's (2008):

Data saturation entails bringing new participants continually into the study until the data set is complete, as indicated by data replication or redundancy. In other words, saturation is reached when the researcher gathers data to the point of diminishing returns, when nothing new is being added (p. 140).

For this research, the sample size was finalised when similar content was repeatedly offered by the participants. Data from the interviews were analysed concurrently and participant recruitment continued until no new issues were identified during the interviews. Saturation of data was reached at the fifteenth interview, where functional redundancy in responses occurred.

5.9 Reliability and validity

Attaining reliability and validity offered further certainty in both qualitative and quantitative research. Reliability is consistency in any repeated measurement or experiment; however, in

this context it is more appropriate to use the definition of the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, that “consistently good in quality and performance, and able to be trusted” (Hornby, 1995). A measurement, experiment or research study is reliable if results are the same after repeated analysis. It is important to remember that reliability is not measured; it is estimated.

According to Taylor and Bogdan (1998), “... it is not possible to achieve perfect reliability if we are to produce meaningful studies of the real world” (p. 9). In relation to that, Flick (2009, p. 387) suggests that improving the process of determining reliability can be achieved by documenting a detailed research process. For this research, the researcher transcribed every interview. Documentation of related data was important in encouraging reliability and assisting with interpretation (Flick, 2009). The researcher also took copious field notes during observation sessions to enhance reliability (Kirk and Miller, 1986).

It has been suggested by Long and Johnson (2000) that one should “ensure that data collection is undertaken in a consistent manner free from undue variation which unknowingly exerts an effect on the nature of the data” (p. 31). Therefore, the researcher asked permission from every participant prior to making an appointment with them and also asked them to read a statement about the background of the research (refer to Appendix B.2). All participants then signed a consent form (refer to Appendix B.3) to show their willingness to participate in this research.

Out of 15 the interviewees, 13 gave permission to voice record the interviews; two refused to be recorded so the researcher documented these interviews by taking down notes of the interview; one participant agreed to respond to questions via email. Having all 15 interviews documented smoothed the process of the rigorous qualitative analysis that followed.

Reliability was also addressed at the beginning of the project when constructing the semi-structured interview questions. The researcher tested the interview questions in a “mock interview” session with three students from Lincoln University who had no background or knowledge of her research, to ensure that the questions could be easily understood by the potential participants.

In terms of the reliability of observations, the researcher had completed a qualitative research course at Lincoln University to become familiar with carrying out observations in the field. The researcher was asked to sit in a research setting for four sessions of two hours each and record all details (sights, sounds, smells, feelings, perceptions) and any related observations in the field. From the course and continuously practising this exercise, the researcher eventually developed a routine for undertaking observations whenever she was in her research setting. Thus, occasional visits to the research setting, where the researcher would spend a few hours, provided a deeper understanding of the research phenomenon. Engaging in a method such as observation “will lead to more valid, reliable and diverse construction of realities” (Golafshani, 2003, p. 604).

The researcher attempted to address the reliability concerns of this qualitatively-focused project by outlining the reasons for the research and the major questions to address. The researcher then identified her perspective on the research questions, stated the research assumptions and biases, and explained the data gathering procedures and categories developed for analysis.

Validity, according to Kirk and Miller (1986), is an issue that depends on the interpretation of the observations by the researcher. It is essential for the researcher to gain recognition and acceptance of the various legitimate forms of qualitative research and to focus on the appropriate research procedures (Dickie, 2003). Thomas and Magilvy (2011) noted that validity is comparable to transferability in qualitative research. Transferability, according to Lincoln and Guba (1985), is:

... a direct function of the *similarity* between the two contexts, what we shall call “*fittingness*”. Fittingness is defined as the degree of congruence between sending and receiving contexts. If context A and context B are “sufficiently” congruent, then working hypothesis from the sending originating context *may* be applicable in the receiving context (p. 124).

Transferability is the ability to transfer findings or methods from this research to other contexts (Thomas and Magilvy, 2011) through the degree of capability (fittingness) to which the findings or the method were derived from this research. It is also important to know that the aim of this research was not to generalise, but rather to explore descriptive activities

relevant to the scope of the study. Generalisations are closely related to theory, the difference being that theory specifies the relationship among the themes found while generalisations are concerned with the extent to which whatever relationships that are uncovered in a particular situation can be expected to hold true for every situation (Patton, 1980). Achieving generalisation was neither a goal nor a possibility in this research.

5.10 Conducting the research and analysis

The approach that the researcher conducted the research and processed the data analysis strongly reflected the exploratory nature of this study and incorporated a high degree of reflection. This section deliberates on the various qualitative data analyses and interpretive methods employed in the manipulation and interpretation of data. Data collected needed to be analysed and interpreted using a systematic method due to its impact on the credibility of the findings. For qualitative research, data analysis comprises of categorisation of codings, searching for patterns, themes, holistic features and characteristics of the data.

This section will focus on the tools used to analyse the data. Analysis had, in fact, been happening from the very beginning of the research. While deciding on the method to be used, the researcher also considered the appropriate analytic approaches since a pre-determined analysis application would likely guide the data collection process. The qualitative research approach required the researcher to dig deeply into the research topic to understand all the issues. The goal was to collect a diverse range of data over a period of time in a continual and systematic manner (Lofland et al., 2006) so a triangulation approach was applied to achieve this.

5.10.1 Triangulation

In order to provide a broad, rich variety of data, the researcher used a combination of five approaches (semi-structured interviews, empirical materials, observation, field notes and photographs) to establish a comprehensive representation of the scenario (Figure 5.7). This method of looking at the phenomenon from several different perspectives is called triangulation (Esterberg, 2002). A more in-depth definition of triangulation offered by Silverman (2006) involves “combining multiple theories, methods, observers, and empirical

materials to produce a more accurate, comprehensive and objective representation of the object of study” (p. 291).

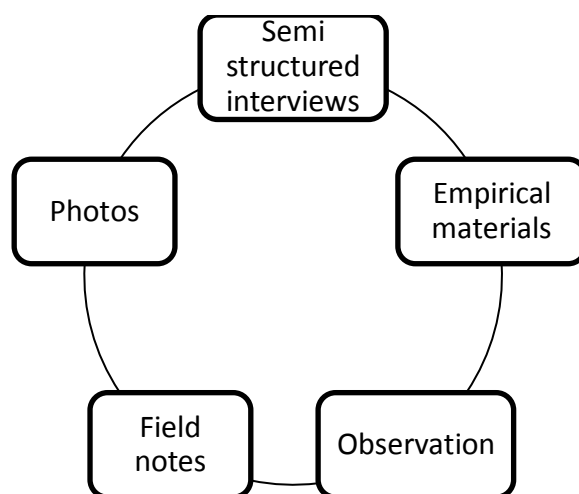


Figure 5.7 : The different approaches used in this research

These approaches were used to enhance the credibility, reliability, validity and transferability of the data collection process and to provide diverse observations to complement every angle of the research setting. There are numerous strategies for data gathering in qualitative research, each having strengths and weaknesses; therefore, having more than two approaches contributes to a stronger research design and provides robustness since it captures data from many perspectives (Flick, 2009). As stated by Taylor and Bogdan (1998):

Triangulation is often thought of as a way of checking out insights gleaned from different informants or different sources of data. By drawing on other types and sources of data, observers also gain a deeper and clearer understanding of the setting and people being studied (p. 80).

5.10.2 Semi-structured interviews

The semi-structured interview is one of the most frequently used qualitative methods (Silverman, 2006) and was chosen for this study because of its flexibility in capturing as much information as possible in a social context environment. The face-to-face interview approach was selected because it took into account gestures, facial expressions and the interview environment, and enables the underlying meaning of an interviewee’s responses to

be more deeply explored (Kvale, 1996). The semi-structured emphasis for interviews was chosen to allow the flexibility to probe for details on the issue under discussion and also to allow for focused and conversational two-way communication. “Semi-structured” according to Gillham (2005) implies that:

... the same questions are asked of all those involved; the kind and form of questions go through a process of development to ensure their topic focus; to ensure equivalent coverage (with an eye to the subsequent comparative analysis) interviewees are prompted by supplementary questions if they have not dealt spontaneously with one of the sub-areas of interest; approximately equivalent interview times are allowed in each case (p. 34).

Figure 5.8 provides a breakdown of the numbers of interviewees and indicates how the interviews were conducted. A total of 15 coffee shop owners in the Christchurch metropolitan area participated in the research. All interviews were conducted in English.

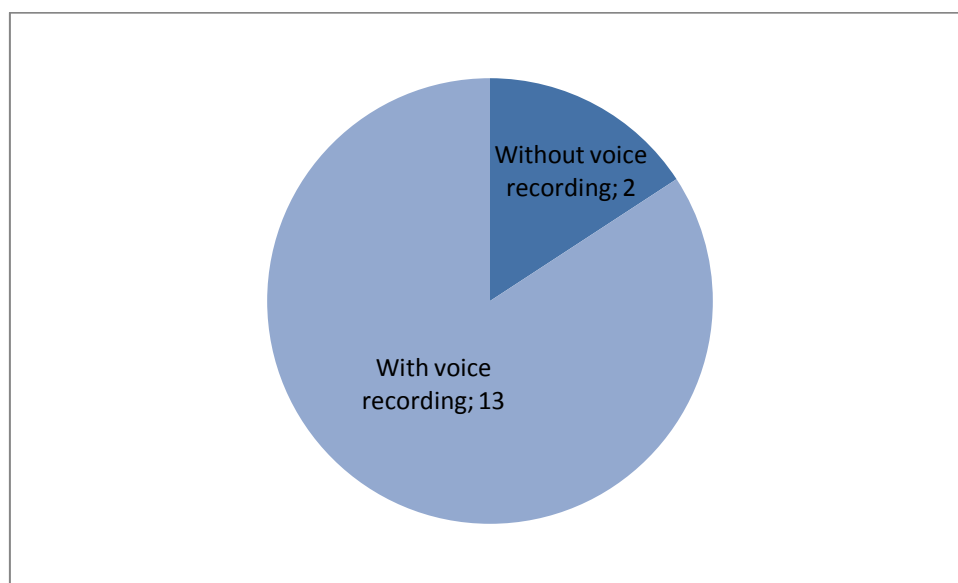


Figure 5.8 : Breakdown of the mode of interviews

The researcher linked pseudonyms to every participant to guarantee their privacy and protect their identity. For example, giving a random name such as “Ben” to a male participant or “Lorelai” to a female participant owning an independent coffee shop without revealing the coffee shop (name) and location of the shop was designed to protect the identity of

participants. Table 5.2 provides the details of the background characteristics of the participating coffee shop owners.

Table 5.2 : Participants' backgrounds

	Pseudonym	Gender	Age of business	Position ⁷	Prior experience in the food and beverage industry
ICS 01	Hunter	m	7 years	Owner	Experienced in managing a café
ICS 02	Maxwell	m	17 years	Founder	
ICS 03	Ben	m	6 months	Owner	17 years
ICS 04	Luke	m	5 weeks	Manager	Experience as a chef for 6 to 7 years
ICS 05	Gerard	m	4 years	Founder	
ICS 06	Jason	m	1 year 5 months	Founder	
ICS 07	Lorelai	f	27 years	Founder	
ICS 08	Rachel	f	3 ½ years	Founder	
ICS 09	Patrick	m	2 years	Founder	Experienced of 4 ½ years as a barista
ICS 10	Hillary	f	5 years	Founder	
ICS 11	Mike	m	3 weeks	Founder	15 years experienced as a chef
ICS 12	Sheila	f	5 years	Founder	
ICS 13	Sam	m	8 years	Manager	
ICS 14	Christine	f	3 years	Founder	
ICS 15	Zoe	f	18 years	Founder	

Only the researcher, her main supervisor and co-supervisor had access to the original data and the participants' identities. Participants were also asked to sign a consent form after reading the information sheet (Appendix B.2) that explained the background of the research.

⁷ *Position

Manager: The person who administered the outlet

Owner: The person who bought the outlet concept from previous owner and continues managing it

Founder: The person who created the outlet concept

It was only after participants had signed the consent form (Appendix B.3) that the researcher proceeded with interviews. Fifteen people were interviewed face-to-face, voice recorded, transcribed, read and re-read to ensure every point was analysed. The researcher made hand-written notes during the interviews with the five participants who chose not to be recorded. The subsequent analysis involved a detailed, thorough coding process and the categorisation of data into themes. The themes were organised based on the three research questions for this study.

5.10.3 Field notes

Field notes were made throughout the data collection process and also when the researcher visited a food and beverage outlet during her leisure time. The purpose of taking field notes was to record every observation in the research field and to understand it (Esterberg, 2002). Field notes were also significant for data validation. Because these notes contained detailed descriptive information they reduced the possibility of the researcher relying on incorrect “assumptions” (Sapsford and Jupp, 1996, p. 288). Relevant data from the field notes were then used to corroborate the data from the interviews.

The field notes were an essential and invaluable component of the research inquiry. Data and information gathered from the observations made during fieldwork, using an assortment of data collection methods, constituted the field notes. Other than field notes, the researcher also wrote memos (memoing) on thoughts during the field research and overheard conversations in coffee shops. Often the memos were mental assemblies, which were later revisited to interpret the interview and observational data.

Memoing has been a functional exercise in classifying the coding. The researcher used the memoing approach to record thoughts during the course of coding (Lofland et al., 2006; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Memoing, according to Bryman and Hardy (2009), “allows sensitivity to existing literature and theory to be combined with a commitment to grounding in data” (p. 638). Memos are mostly written to remind the researcher why such an arrangement was made and to provide perspective on interpretation of the data.

5.10.4 Photographs

Besides keeping field notes and conducting participant observation, the researcher also took photographs both inside and outside the cafés. Five hundred and seventy eight photos were taken in this study as part of the data triangulation effort. The intention was to capture activities in the field that might not emerge during the interviews or the transcription of the interviews. This included non-verbal activities, reactions from customers and interactions among individuals in the setting. The researcher also carefully observed the space, ambience and design of the outlets' surroundings. Digital photos enabled the researcher to retain every piece of visual information from the participants' outlets and other outlets that were not participating in the research. Photography was also used as a research tool to extend the researcher's perceptions and also the visual processes, in order to find out more about the phenomena or setting (Collier and Collier, 1986). These photographs were taken both when the researcher was undertaking her fieldwork and also when visiting the locations casually.

Thus, the researcher had the advantage of visiting the research field regularly, given that it was a public space, and so had the pleasure of observing what was going on in the outlet as time passed. During these visits, the researcher discussed the characteristics of the outlet with her companions and also noted what they experienced. There were several times when the researcher sketched a plan of the outlet to gain a better idea of the setting. Photos were not coded or systematically analysed; rather, they were used to enrich the data and confirm details from the field notes.

5.10.5 Observation

Observation is the second important procedure in field research after the semi-structured interviews. Here a researcher examines the natural setting for the purpose of developing an holistic social-scientific understanding of the association (Lofland et al., 2006). The researcher sought, through people's behaviours, activities, expressions, interactions and the environment, to understand the multiple interrelationships among the dimensions that surfaced from the observation process in the particular setting. While carrying out observations, the researcher needed to be conscious of her approach of doing observations. According to Patton (2001), people may behave differently when they realise that they were being observed, as opposed to how they behave naturally. Therefore, covert observation is

more likely to capture the real behaviour and situation of the studied research setting, as opposed to overt observation.

The researcher made observations during her visits to any food and beverage outlet, whether attending individually or in group. The researcher also revisited the participating coffee shops after the interviews and had informal conversations with the owners, who were included in the active participant observations. In some instances, the researcher was a passive observer, viewing the atmosphere as thoughts running through the researcher's mind. The researcher also adopted unobtrusive methods since it has limited intrusion into the phenomena (Punch, 2005). All interactions and participations were informal.

The researcher also took note of the conversations among group members about the setting of the place, service, and quality of the food. Comparisons with other coffee shop outlets they had been to were also sought. During these observations, the researcher made every attempt to observe and write notes on everything possible. On occasions where jotting down notes was impossible, the researcher took photos to capture the desired observations.

5.10.6 Empirical materials

Empirical materials may produce interpretations and conclusions that go beyond verbal and non-verbal language (Deetz and Alvesson, 2000). Throughout the data collection period, the researcher kept track of related resources, such as news, brochures and promotional materials including serviettes, feedback forms and loyalty programme cards. While these empirical materials could be unobtrusive they could still carry significant responsibility; that is, appealing to customers and ensured return purchases from customers, for example through loyalty cards and point of sale displays. The loyalty card offered by outlets may build a positive relationship between the customer and the brand (Noordhoff, Pauwels and Odekerken-Schroder, 2004).



Figure 5.9 : An example of a customer loyalty card

The purpose of collecting these empirical materials was to reflect upon their impact on building the identity of the outlet. These materials provided additional information about the research field, given that they played a role in attracting customers to the outlet and also encouraged customers to return to the outlet. According to Deetz and Alvesson (2000), the researcher must evaluate and analytically study all empirical material before deciding what it can be used for. Thus, empirical material required solid judgements and consideration in order to “provide richer material for reflection and puzzle solving” (p. 123).

The five approaches applied in this research were designed to address all three research questions. Data collected from these approaches were coded before the data set was organised into themes. The themes that emerged during the thematic analysis and in the interpretation phase are presented the Section 5.14.

5.11 Data collection

5.11.1 Designing the interview framework

A semi-structured interview format was used for data collection. The findings from the interviews were analysed and became the primary data of the study. The researcher conducted the interviews based on questions developed from the literature and conceptual model, and the research questions. Figure 5.10 summarises the process of the design of the preliminary interview questions:

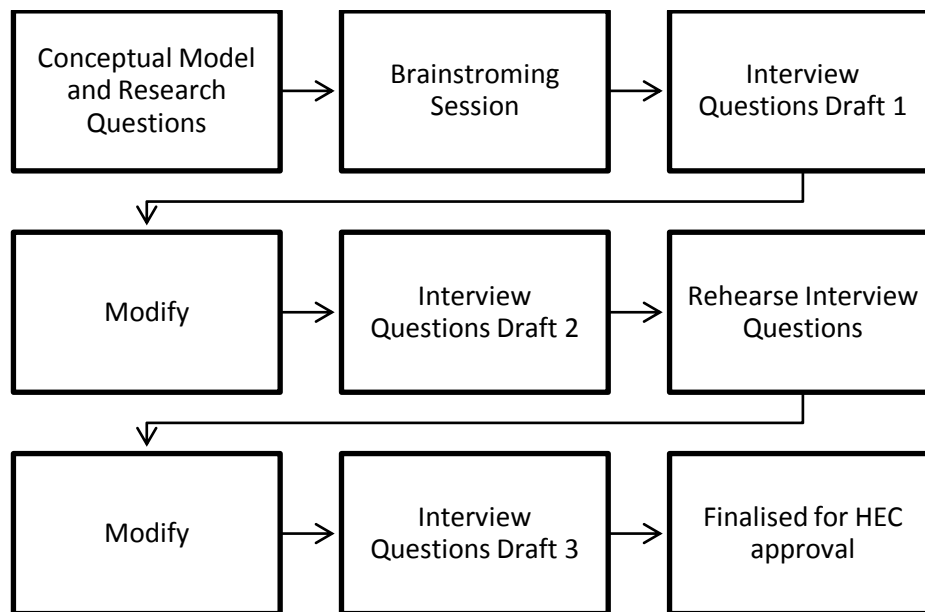


Figure 5.10 : Design of the preliminary interview questions

Figure 5.10 above demonstrates the phases taken by the researcher in developing the main instrument for this study, the semi-structured interview questions. These phases were taken to ensure robustness to the main research instrument. Brainstroming sessions and rehearsing the interview questions were necessary to achieve the best quality of questions the researcher could provide.

Table 5.3 demonstrates the preliminary construction of the interview questions for the coffee shops. Ten initial elements helped to shape the interview questions based on the literature review and the theories used in this study. Each of the interview questions was targeted to address the research objectives and also to explore the relations in the conceptual model. A strong emphasis was placed on using clear terminology in the interview questions. The sequence of the interview questions was also rearranged to enable a smooth flow during the interview process.

Table 5.3 : Preliminary interview question design

Preliminary semi-structured interview questions	
1.	How do you define culture in the context of your outlet?
2.	What are among the important values (morals, principles) that are practised in the outlet?
3.	Could you give me an example of any continuous behaviour which builds into a

	culture that belongs to your outlet?
4.	How do you conduct training for the newly appointed employee in your outlet?
5.	What are your thoughts or ideas in building this brand to a greater level by looking at the internal operations?
6.	How would you describe the importance of brand knowledge of a product or services?
7.	How do you see the importance of internal organisational culture in building brand knowledge?
8.	From your point of view, who creates the perceptions about the brand: the organisation or the consumer?
9.	How would you describe the importance of service quality in your outlet?
10.	What are your opinions about customers' experience and brand loyalty?

Table 5.3 displays the initial questions for the participants. From an initial rehearsal with the research supervisory team, the researcher re-worded several expressions, such as “culture”, “internal organisational culture” and “brand knowledge”, to frame the expressions and questions into a language that participants would understand in relation to their day-to-day business and based on their backgrounds. The interview questions were also reorganised to include introductory questions that would help to break the ice and to encourage the interviewee to relax.

A second draft of the interview questions was developed incorporating these comments. The researcher rehearsed the second draft of the interview questions with three Lincoln University students who did not have any experience in working at a café/restaurant/coffee shop, to ensure that the questions were clear and easily understood.

The students, aged 23 to 27 years, were asked to imagine themselves as coffee shop owners, in order to relate to the interview questions. They were free to choose any coffee shop they liked but were encouraged to choose a coffee shop that they had been to before. The researcher then conducted a role-play interview with them with a voice recorder and tried to identify any questions that were hard to understand or relate to. All three students managed to answer most of the questions directed to them; however, they all stumbled on the question, “What are among the values that are practised (by you and your employees) in your outlet?” The researcher then explained the concept of value used in this study, without giving examples. They were then able to answer the question. The researcher also noticed that a few questions were repeated in the interview sessions when the students gave the same answer as

to an earlier question. For example, the three questions below elicited the same response from a number of them:

1. How do you operate the outlet?
2. Could you give me examples of routine or day-to-day work in your outlet?
3. Is there any routine that you feel is different from what the other outlets are doing?

The following two questions also had the potential to elicit the same response:

1. From your experience in handling the outlet, what are the things that might get the customers to keep coming back to your outlet?
2. What brings them (customers) here?

The researcher then revised the interview questions for a third time, resulting in more comprehensive questions and the removal of redundant questions. The final interview questions were required to go through the Lincoln University Human Ethics Committee (HEC) for approval in order to carry out interviews with the public.

5.12 Research Field

The research field was divided into three phases: the first phase was the initial exposure where the researcher prepared the ground for field research; the second phase was designing the data collection framework; and the third phase was the interviews with the ICSs' participants.

5.12.1 Initial exposure

An initial survey of the research context was conducted to provide background information and to address issues such as the comprehensiveness of the interview questions. This also gave the researcher an opportunity to gain experience in the field. The researcher made several visits to the research field and experienced the service provided in the coffee shop outlets in order to gain familiarity with those specific surroundings.

Visits were also made to a number of franchise outlets to help the researcher with initial familiarisation with the research context. The franchise coffee shop holds a niche in the food and beverage industry, with franchises having a common business format. Starbucks, Gloria Jean's Coffee and Esquires are among examples of franchise coffee shop businesses. This business format brought the number of Starbucks to more than 17,651 outlets worldwide between 1971 and 2012 (Starbucks, 2012). Thus, insight was gained on how the franchise business format operates, helping the researcher to gain perspective and an understanding of the way these businesses work.

It is the nature of the franchise model that outlets demonstrate a high degree of consistency. Thus, all managers of franchise coffee shops follow the same basic management practices and have little autonomy. They have formal training prior to starting with the business and have a strong support system available for managing their outlet. Physically, the franchise coffee shops share the same logo, theme colour, ambience and interior design. The identical look is compulsory for any franchise in any industry to present a uniform and standard image of the brand. This understanding was important for the researcher in assessing the independent coffee shop research context.

As a result of this initial exposure, the researcher became more aware of her surroundings and was able to be more critical about the activities going on amongst the players in the research field. Mapping important details such as the number of coffee shops in the area, the types of coffee shops, the colour of the uniforms worn in the outlet (if any) and the logo of the outlet on coffee cups and serviettes (mostly in franchise coffee shops), opened up the possibility of exploring what these details meant to the owners and customers. Data collection then commenced.

5.12.2 Designing the data collection framework

In this phase, the researcher identified potential participants for the research. Participants were the owners of coffee shops in Christchurch. The researcher downloaded a list of coffee shops outlets from various websites that promoted well known coffee shops in Christchurch (*dineout.co.nz*, *finda.co.nz*, and *newzealandcoffeeguide.co.nz*). The researcher then made several phone calls to the outlets to initiate contact and invite the owners to participate in the research. Not all phone calls were answered. In some cases, the owner was not interested in

the research. To compound the problem, when the researcher spoke to the owners, it was hard to have a proper conversation because of the coffee shop noise in the background. The researcher then decided to approach coffee shop owners in person. This proved to be more successful. The Information sheet and Human Ethics Approval letter were shown to potential participants to encourage their participation. Appointments were set according to the time agreed upon by the researcher and the owners, once confirmation of their willingness to participate was received. The coffee shop profile on each of their websites (if they had a site) was then studied to gain information about what their outlet offered.

During the interviews, the researcher observed the range of activities occurring in the outlet. Details such as greetings, the outlet's ambience and the friendliness of the staff were recorded in the observation notes. The researcher also observed the connections owners had with the coffee shop outlet that they belonged to. Talking to the owners of the coffee shops widened the scope of the research and also exposed the researcher to a broader perspective. The design of the interview questions had been guided by the conceptual model and the research questions, in order to ensure the scope of the research remained intact. However, the researcher learned in the field that there was more to observe. This added another dimension to the research; in particular, this dictated looking at the emerging issues or difficulties that occurred in the day-to-day activities of the coffee shop owners. The interview questions were expanded as a consequence and the researcher worked on probing skills to extend the depth of the interviews. Miles and Huberman (1994) stated that the main research instrument in a qualitative study is allowed to be revised:

... in fact, should be revised. You learn how to ask a question in the site's term and to look with new eyes at something that began to emerge during the first visit. Instrumentation can be modified steadily to explore new leads, address a revised research question, or interview a new class of informant (p. 38).

Thus, modification and improvement of the interview questions was done continuously. There were some changes in the semi-structured interview questions. Some questions, which had elicited similar responses from the participants, were removed. Other questions were added and/or rephrased. For example, *How is the business going at the moment?* was changed to *How do you cope with the recession?* The rephrased question provided a more focused

enquiry and enabled the researcher to elicit in-depth responses regarding the business' current business performance.

Transcriptions were completed immediately after the interviews. These were done manually in Microsoft Word and transferred to NVivo software for the researcher to analyse the data. NVivo was used to examine the interview data only in the initial stages of becoming familiar with the data.

5.12.3 The ICS phase

The third and the final phase focused on independent coffee shops. Fifteen independent coffee shops in Christchurch participated in this study, representing various organisational concepts. The recruitment of participants has been explained in the sampling section (Section 5.7). The interview questions were segmented according to the themes identified in the first phase of data collection. Section 5.14 will explain the thematic content analysis.

Besides interviewing the owners of the independent coffee shops, the researcher also had the opportunity to have an in-depth discussion with a key informant who plays a major role in the food and beverage industry in Christchurch. The purpose of this discussion was to acquire additional industrial information about the food and beverage industry and to collect contacts for potential participants. The key informant also provided her views and experience on the setting of the food and beverage industry in Christchurch, New Zealand.

At this stage, the researcher took the opportunity to attend a barista class in a coffee shop. This gave the researcher the chance to have hands-on experience with the coffee machine and being in the kitchen area with other staff to see how they entertained and served their customers. This experience helped the researcher to better understand the working processes and internal culture of an independent coffee shop. It also enabled the researcher to understand and interpret responses from participants during interviews and observations. This experience in the research field offered profound insights into the research questions.

With the completion of all three phases, the researcher had developed a deep understanding of the research context and, most importantly, in relating it to the theoretical framework identified in Chapter 4. The following sections demonstrate the further analysis of this study.

5.13 Coding

According to Coffey and Atkinson (1996), coding is about “relating (those) data to our ideas” (p. 27). For this study, the data were related to the conceptual model that the researcher had built earlier (Chapter 4, Section 4.7). The coding process may result in large amounts of data; however, it “can be kept at a basic level by applying it as a categorisation technique for qualitative analysis” (Saldaña, 2009, p. 68). According to Charmaz (2006), the process of coding involves comparing data with data, then comparing the data with the codes. There were two styles of coding adopted in the analysis: initial (open) coding and focused (selective) coding (Charmaz, 2006; Lofland et al., 2006).

The researcher read every interview transcript and reviewed every field note and photograph to collate the data and categorised them to make sense of the whole undertaking (Lofland et al., 2006) and to capture initial units of meaning emerging from the data (Buchbinder, 2011). During the initial coding, data that consisted of text, objects (empirical material) and images were closely analysed (Charmaz, 2006). The researcher undertook line-by-line coding of the interview transcripts, studying each line of data to obtain the “big picture” (Silverman, 2010). During the interview transcription process, the researcher spent time listening to and analysing the data from the interviews, developing a familiarity and understanding of the data. The researcher had 227 initial codes for the data; through the phases of categorisation, the codes were reduced (Appendix C). These codes were then condensed and grouped to reflect the initial conceptual model introduced in Chapter 4. The continuous process of questioning the initial codes and data (e.g. What is the person saying? What does this data suggest?) resulted in a smaller number of codes. While engaging in focused coding, the researcher selected the most useful and related initial codes and categorised them into specific types (Charmaz, 2006). Twenty-one codes were eventually identified as accurately relating to the initial core concept. This approach is aligned with the suggestion from Lofland et al. (2006) to eliminate or group together the less descriptive codes and form themes.

5.14 Thematic content analysis

Thematic content analysis is a descriptive presentation of qualitative data. This research used this approach to interpret and evaluate the interview transcriptions and codings to ensure they represented the whole content. The purpose of categorising content into themes was also to present the different expressions of the data. Thematic content analysis categorises common thoughts provided in the data analysed. The researcher could see the emerging thematic ideas through this process. The reliability and validity of the thematic analysis process was increased through quotes from the participants, conferring accuracy and intricacy to the data. The researcher found that having the conceptual model right from the beginning of the study helped in shaping the whole thesis and fabricate the intricacies of the theories applied.

5.15 Theme formation and the conceptual model

5.15.1 Creating a story

The researcher regarded the narrative approach of “Studs” Terkel (1970) as a great example for describing a research setting and participants’ views. This perspective on understanding was seen as a robust way of getting an accurate, meaningful story from the owner’s point of view when it came to planning and managing their outlet. As quoted in the book, *A Whole New Mind*, by Daniel H. Pink (2005) states that “humans are not ideally set up to understand logic, they are ideally set up to understand stories” (p. 100). “Story telling has been used for centuries as a powerful vehicle for communication” (Koch, 1998, p. 1182). However, it was necessary to develop appropriate tools to allow the readers to travel easily through the world of the participants (and makers of the stories) and to decide for themselves whether the story was a legitimate research endeavour (Koch, 1998). Each researcher has their own point of view based on the phenomenon they are involved with. In this research, the researcher gathered, analysed and wove the data into findings (Merriam, 1998) to generate new levels of meaning for these phenomena. Krauss (2005) suggested developing themes and storylines to achieve a new level of meaning for the research: “Developing themes and storylines featuring the words and experiences of participants themselves is an important result of qualitative data analysis that adds richness to the findings and their meaning” (p. 767).

5.15.2 Metaphors and analogies

“Metaphors are not just mere words,” (Ortony, 1993, p. 208). Zaltman and Coulter (1995) noted that “... metaphors are not only ways of hiding and expressing thoughts; they actively create and shape thought” (p. 38). With the aim of having a smooth narration and patterns for the findings in the themes, the researcher adopted the metaphor technique; that is, by utilising an object of study, as “the vehicle of expression and construction of models of thought and knowledge about reality” (Ortony, 1993, p. 208). Metaphors are analogies that allow the researcher to map the data according to the identified theme in order to augment an holistic understanding of the research.

To find an appropriate metaphor for this study, the researcher referred to the participants’ responses when describing their outlets. A large proportion of participants described their outlets as striving to be as near as possible to what the customer would get at home. They used this metaphor because they believed that it was the best way to illustrate the service they provided. By using “a comfortable home” as a metaphor the participants created and shaped the presumed archetypal customers’ thoughts, expectations and images relating to the outlet. Further descriptions of the metaphor used in this research will be explained in Chapter 6.

5.16 Categorisation of the coffee shops

In Chapter 1, the researcher provided a brief explanation of the categorisation of the participants in this research. This section will describe in more detail the categorisation of the coffee shops themselves, according to their physical settings and management practices. Independent coffee shops, however, are diverse in many ways. They are divided into two categories; those that serve only coffee and food, and those that serve coffee, food and trade in other merchandise. The management practices for independent coffee shops were derived from the owner’s individual management style, as they have full autonomy in creating the image of the outlet. ICSs are not restricted by any rules; owners are allowed to experiment with their own exclusive ideas in assembling an outlet to reflect their own identity and internal values. Independent coffee shops bear little resemblance to each other; they are unique.

The researcher divided the participating ICSs into three categories: conventional coffee shops, exotic coffee shops and combination coffee shops, as shown in Figure 5.11. The owners of “exotic” coffee shops incorporated elements from other countries to enhance their identity and concept creation. Recruiting employees from multicultural backgrounds, using coffee beans from different parts of the world and serving dishes from other countries were among the actions taken by the owners to enhance their identity. Sheila, from ICS 12, had employees who could speak different languages and were able to create an appealing impression for ICS 12 since it was located in a tourist area.

To have cultural differences, [representing] various cultures. We have staff from different backgrounds, from many countries. Since it is a tourist attraction area, it is important to have staff who can converse in different languages. We have a staff [member] that can speak Spanish, this will help to expand the business. (Sheila, ICS 12)

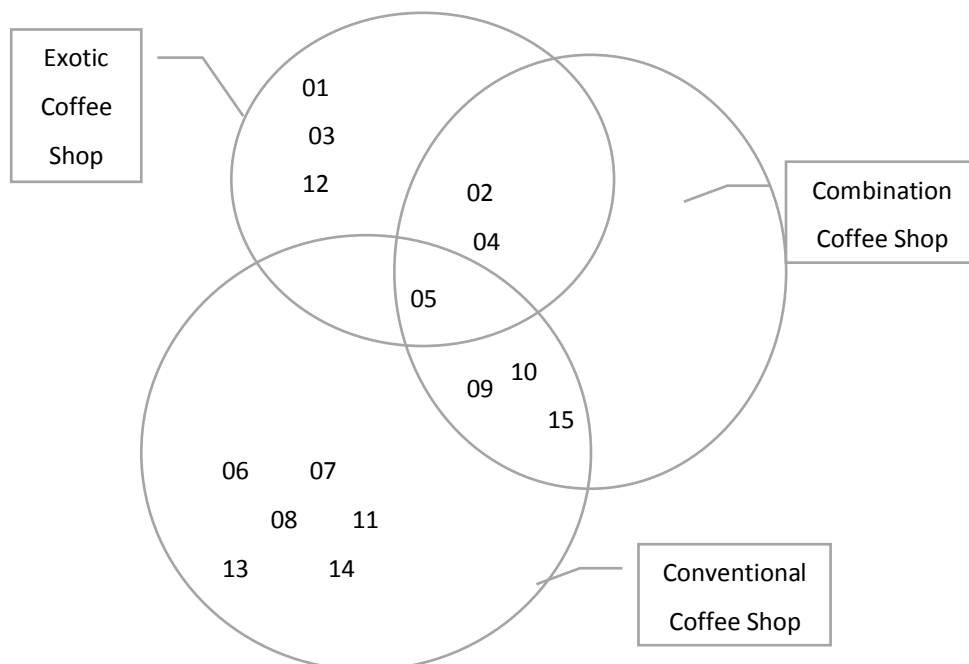


Figure 5.11 : ICS outlet categorisation

The second category was the combination coffee shop. Combination coffee shops served coffee and food, but also other things such as coffee beans, fair trade products, gifts, books,

furniture and plants. Most owners believed that having a second business was an advantage in shaping the image of their coffee shop. They did not appear to realise, however, that by combining their coffee shop with another business, they were actually building a stronger and clearer identity for their coffee shop and attracting more customers. It was also possible to attract a non-coffee drinker by having a sub-business together with a coffee shop. For example, Hillary from ICS 10 has a coffee shop combined with a gift shop. Because she could see an opportunity for a gift shop in the area, Hillary will likely have customers coming in to purchase gifts who might also decide to have a cup of coffee.

The third category comprised of conventional coffee shops. Conventional coffee shops served and focused on coffee and food only and were not mixed with any other business. This was the most common coffee shop concept, seen almost everywhere.

However, as displayed in Figure 5.11, a few ICS had elements associated with more than one category. ICS 10 and 15 had elements of exotic coffee shops and conventional coffee shops, while ICS 05 had a more robust, more inclusive identity that could be associated with all three categories.

5.17 Ethical issues

Concern for treating research participants ethically should not be undertaken lightly. According to Esterberg (2002), there are two issues that are important in addressing ethical requirements: maintaining confidentiality and obtaining informed consent. The privacy of the research participants should be protected; every research participant deserves to have their anonymity preserved. Human ethics approval is compulsory when undertaking research involving human subjects through interviews or observations, or in any circumstances where recordings of images or audio exist. The researcher attained approval to undertake this study from the Lincoln University Human Ethic Committee.

Chapter 6: Findings and discussion

The questions posed in this study were wide ranging, so in order to understand the research context and address the questions the researcher emphasised the invention and processes of the participating outlets. This chapter will unfold the findings from participants, provide an interpretation of all the data and present what has been discovered from this study. It is important to note that, because several of the interviewees were not native speakers of English, the transcripts presented in this thesis may occasionally appear ungrammatical.

This study found that in building a brand, identifiable processes were needed to achieve a distinctiveness and robustness in shaping the brand identity and enhance its relationship with customers. It was also found that the creation of an internal organisational culture required resilient fundamentals to uphold and sustain the internal operations of the outlet and related elements such as the individuals involved in the outlet and their values and practices. The relationship of brand identity and internal organisational culture were initiated through the continuous process of adaptation and assimilation.

6.1 The importance of brand identity building in the food and beverage industry

6.1.1 Meaning of brand names

Creating or acquiring a brand name was among the first steps that needed to be taken when creating a brand identity. In this study, the term 'brand' was used by the organisations to describe who they were and the name given to their coffee shop. Independent coffee shop (ICS) owners lacked concern about their brand name (name of the shop); they were more focused on their interactions with customers, as shown by Christine:

I think it's very important for me to know my customers. The customer's always right and whatever the customers want, they should get. As long as everybody has that ethic, they can work well within a team. And that is very important, and communication, it's communication really, and listening (Christine, ICS 14).

ICS owners focused more on their perception of what the customer wanted. Most ICS participants did not invest time or money on the branding exercise; for example, most of the names chosen for their businesses were chosen spontaneously, without much thought. Three participants, who had purchased established businesses, simply used the same brand name as the previous owner. One participant used the name of the street the business was situated on as the name of his coffee shop.

Data analysis revealed that the participants viewed the name of the shop as insignificant and not having any influence on getting more customers or increasing trade. Participants were generally more focused on service and customers' needs. Zoe, a participant from ICS 15 decided to pick a random word as her coffee shop brand name.

Well... my husband said to me, 'How did you go today? Did you get many buyers today? How does it go?' 'Ohh, it's just a bunch of surfers⁸ today,' I said. So the name became *The Surfers*. No one is buying today. So we call it the *The Surfers* café. (Zoe, ICS 15)

Zoe integrated her observations of the surrounding environment into her brand name. However, the brand name had no association with the concept that was created for the coffee shop; it seemed to have more association with Zoe's easy going and spontaneous personality.

In contrast to Zoe and most of the other ICS participants, Patrick from ICS 09 demonstrated his deep understanding of the consequences of having an appropriate brand. The brand name of the shop was his name, Patrick. Given that he has a high profile and was successful in this industry, Patrick's aim was attract many customers through the use of his name. He believed that the idea of using his name was both "good and bad": good for catching the attention of customers and potential customers passing by the shop which was located in the urban section of the district, and bad when the customers only went to the coffee shop when he was on the premises.

I think lots of people like to come here because of me, because I'm here, and that's why I'm trying to have a change so people will come here regardless of who's behind the coffee machine, who'll

⁸All places and persons were given pseudonyms to guarantee the anonymity of participants.

make a good coffee and give good customer service because I don't want them to count on me all the time, because I cannot be here seven days a week... (Patrick, ICS 09).

This predicament led ICS 09 to decide to make a change. "So, it is in the process. I want to change my logo, so I'm not going to have my name on it. So, yeah, I want to change the brand now..." Patrick realised that having his name as a brand might have been an indication to customers that he was always available. This unforeseen circumstance encouraged Patrick to modify his brand.

Lawler (2008) stated that although forming an identity could be as simple as looking at the core roots of a business, it can be a complex process of identification. The findings of the present research indicated that even looking at the roots will not do justice in creating an identity for an organisation. To create a clear brand identity, the creator of the brand needs to conceive and visualise how the brand would fit into the competitive industry. The process of identification needs to be put together cautiously in order to produce a comprehensive brand name. To achieve an inclusive identification, it was necessary for the ICS owners to put more effort into choosing a brand name that was consistent with the concept of the organisation. For example, Ben from ICS 03 related his roots to the concept of his outlet:

Tea is big back home, for us [in country]. I don't know about you guys if tea is really important as well. That is why we call it [what we have]. Tea is very famous in [name of his country], instead of coffee mainly.

The consistency that Ben practised in relating his roots to the name of his shop and into its concept minimised any confusion arising in the brand recognition process. This finding was in agreement with Emily (2003) who asserted that there were two reasons why the brand name was important for brand building. First, a brand name provides a **consistent and continuing source of differentiation** and can be used for brand extension. Secondly, brand names provide **considerable indication about the feelings and influence** of the buying decision for potential customers. ICS 03 had related its brand name to the influence of where the owner came from, and ICS 09 tried to find distinctiveness by using the owner's name as the brand name. While this was an advantage in attracting customers, ICS 09 had difficulty meeting the expectations of customers who wanted to meet the owner whenever they visited

the outlet. The owner of ICS 15 however did not give much attention to the name of her brand. It was apparent that having a distinctive and consistent brand name played a major role in the identification process of some of the organisations.

The findings of this study also indicate that a unique brand name ensured that an outlet stood out from the crowd. It was even better if the name could act as a trigger for consumers, with the brand name representing the meaning of the outlet. For example, if the name of an outlet was *Pronto*, it may suggest to the public that this outlet has some association with Italian concepts such as the menu, or the interior decoration. The association of the outlet name with its Italian essence generated national associations and perceptions.

Having the right brand name may also offer easy brand recognition and reduce the branding route required, especially in creating an identity for the outlet. The right brand name was generally easy to relate to, descriptive, and had a strong meaning behind it. It also helped create a brand personality and made it possible to create a memorable name that would noticeably increase response rates for current and potential customers. As one of the participants from ICS 11, Mike, who chose a short word for his shop name, said:

Umm, I don't know. I was throwing ideas for names when I was in [overseas] and my boss sort of come up with 'Luck' and it sort of got stuck in my head for a while. [After] six months and I was, no, that will be fine. It's easy to remember and I get a lot of people who have asked me and I'm like – I don't know. It just sort of got stuck in my head.

Mike's brand name was short, simple and easy to remember. However, he did not have a strong basis for the name which might cause difficulties in creating a strong brand identity for his shop. Not having the appropriate brand name could result in customer confusion, as had happened to Patrick from ICS 09, who used his name as the brand name. Because he was famous, most of the customers came to the outlet to see him there and this caused difficulty for the outlet.

A brand name is part of the brand elements that also include logos, symbols, packaging and slogans (Keller and Lehmann, 2006). These elements play an important role in distinguishing the brand. Most franchise outlets placed their brand elements almost everywhere: on their coffee cups, plates, serviettes, sugar packaging and on their walls, as a way to strengthen the

brand. Franchise coffee shops maximised their use of brand elements to provide a solid foundation for building their identity, which is lacking in independent coffee shops. The brand elements were among the main components that emphasised the existence of an outlet.

The lack of brand element use was apparent in the ICS operations. This may have resulted from a lack of funds for the purpose of designing logos, providing uniform designs for cups and saucers, and other brand elements. Another possible reason for paying less attention to brand elements might have been that ICS owners were not aware of the impact of these on their customers. They will have an effect, mostly on the engagement of the customers with the identification of the ICS; hence, additional attention should be given when supporting the brand with these presentations of the brand. The next section will elaborate further on improving the brand identification process.

6.1.2 Distinctive identification and conception

Creating a unique identity was not a straightforward process, especially for ICS outlets. Most ICS participants were from small sized shops. These owners lacked resources to design and support an identity that would distinguish them from their competitors in this industry. ICS owners generally did not have formal training and knowledge to build their brand identity. Therefore, it was surprising to observe how well several ICS managed to build their brand identity. Based on the interviews and observations during field research, the most possible explanation for the owners working on the identification of their outlets could be the vision the owners had, which had a huge impact on building the identity. For example, Sam from ICS 13 had plans for the future that involved expanding the coffee shop:

Umm... we have got plans to build 12 guestrooms and turn it into a motel lodge, [or] hotel park. And there is nothing here in [the area name] for people staying in the area. We figured it [will] has nice outlook, building space. We got 12 rooms, we will have small board rooms comes meeting room comes private function.

Sam's future plan demonstrated his passion for his current business in hospitality. Thus, Sam needed to develop an identity that suited the coffee shop and also the new accommodation plan in order to avoid an ambiguous identification with his brand. To facilitate the brand identification process, the researcher utilised part of the strategic brand analysis process designed by Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000, p. 41) to understand how owners might have

defined their brand. Aaker and Joachimsthaler suggested three stages for brand analysis: customer analysis, competitor analysis and self-analysis (Figure 6.1).

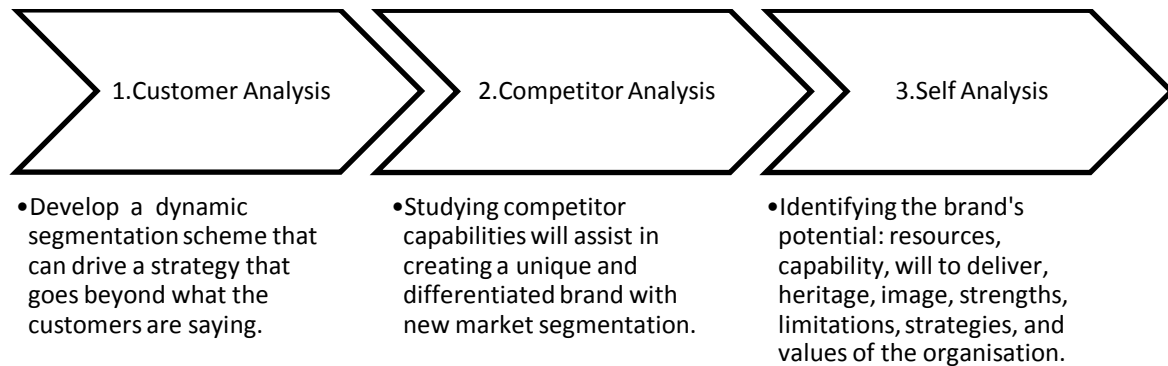


Figure 6.1 : Strategic brand analysis

The respondents provided evidence for each stage of the Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000) model by their views of their customers, competitors and their own operations. Examples of these are presented in Table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1 : Participants' strategic brand analysis

Stage	Findings from participants	Examples from participants
1. Customer Analysis	<p>The owners' views on the customers' needs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To be remembered • Value for money • Same quality of food every time • To feel relaxed and comfortable 	<p>"... you know I want them to know that they can come back any day of the week and have the open sandwich and it's going to be as good as what they remembered last time. And just for people to go away feeling like they've had a really good value for money and a really nice time..." (Lorelai, ICS 07)</p>
2. Competitor Analysis	<p>The owners' view on competitors' issues:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To be above the normal standard • The sales slow down when there are many competitors 	<p>"When I first started, it was only me really here. I was the first, very first garden centre café in Christchurch to start.. urm. Suddenly... so now there are 28 cafes come on... so... It's not much there for me anymore... So, I find that its harder, it did very well in say... 2004 or 2003... you know... that in the early 2000 really, really good business, the garden centre was humming and we were humming and the garden centre gone down and new place were opened. It's got harder." (Zoe, ICS 15)</p>
3. Self Analysis	<p>The owners' views on their outlet's name/brand:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sense of belonging to the brand • To stand out • Creating a strong brand from internal sources • The importance of the name 	<p>"Actually the name is not important for me. I bought an old business. Actually the business top for a while I know, long ago. ICS 01 was famous in this town... years ago *** the best restaurant in this town, the only restaurant..." (Hunter, ICS 01)</p>

From the Table 6.1, it is clear that the participants in general were analytical in assessing their brand performance except for their views on their brand name. They were aware of their position within the industry and displayed a high level of passion and desire to improve their performance in their customers' and competitors' analyses. The researcher embedded her current findings in Aaker's and Joachimsthaler's (2000) design for strategic brand analysis to make it functional for the service industry in general, as shown in Figure 6.2.

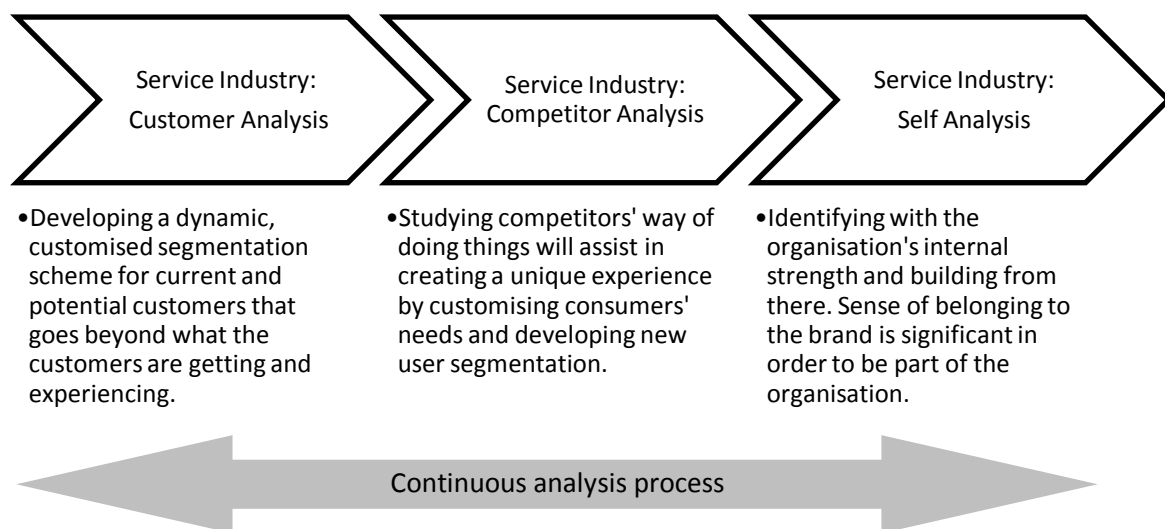


Figure 6.2 : An enhancement of Aaker and Joachimsthaler's (2000) design of strategic brand analysis

Referring to Figure 6.2 above, outlets in the service industry may be able to use it as guidance when analysing their brand. Through detailed analysis, it was possible for a brand to create its own identification and business concept. Besides analysis, there were also other factors found from this research that contributed to having a distinctive identification. According to ICS owners, artistic elegance, business intelligence and creativity were ingredients required to make the coffee shop concept appealing to customers. Owners felt it was essential to invest energy and undertake careful planning in order to create a concept that would produce good feelings and uniqueness. The participants' analysis about this matter were consistent with a study by Namkung and Jang (2008) that recommended detailed concept planning to ensure excitement, pleasure and relaxation for customers.

It is obvious that the first visual sensation experienced by a customer is the feeling when entering the outlet. This experience is often a reflection of the concept created by the founder of the outlet. It was in the 1960s that psychologists began to focus on the effect of physical settings in their attempts to understand customer behaviour (Bitner, 1992). It is interesting to note that all participants discussed the physical setting of their coffee shop. They wanted a space that was comfortable for customers and employees. Jason from ICS 06 had a very small coffee shop. He designed it in a way that suited his (mostly business) customers best. With only two sets of sofas and five stools (Figure 6.3), the size of the coffee shop was an advantage for Jason, as his regular customers saw it as an ideal, private, comfortable, casual outlet in which to conduct meetings.

Business people from the area usually choose this place for their business meetings because it is quiet and they can have some privacy here. We do not have a big space for our customers. With only two sets of sofas and few stools, we depend a lot on our regular customers. We have lots of repeat customers because they know what we have to offer them. It is important for you to know who is your customer and to understand your customer (Jason, ICS 06).

Jason offered a wide range of takeaway food for his customers, especially during the lunch hour. The physical setting of the outlet had ample waiting spaces and also stools for customers. The simple concept of Jason's coffee shop also provided a cosy and un-crowded private meeting outlet for his regular customers. ICS 06 offered a spacious and comfortable outlet for customers to escape from the busy streets into a quiet and calm space.

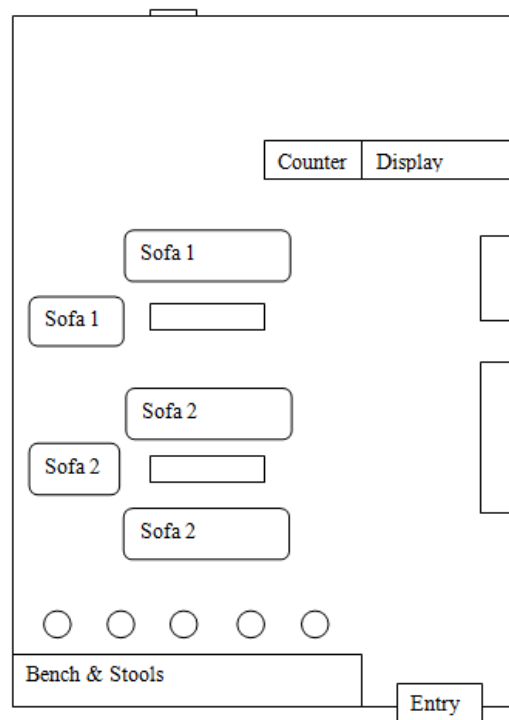


Figure 6.3 : ICS 06 floor layout

Several obvious ambience-relevant factors were regularly identified by the participants regarding their outlets. Figure 6.4 illustrates the factors considered important in creating an appropriate atmosphere for this type of business. These factors also have the significance of having a distinctive concept with regard to their buildings' physical settings.

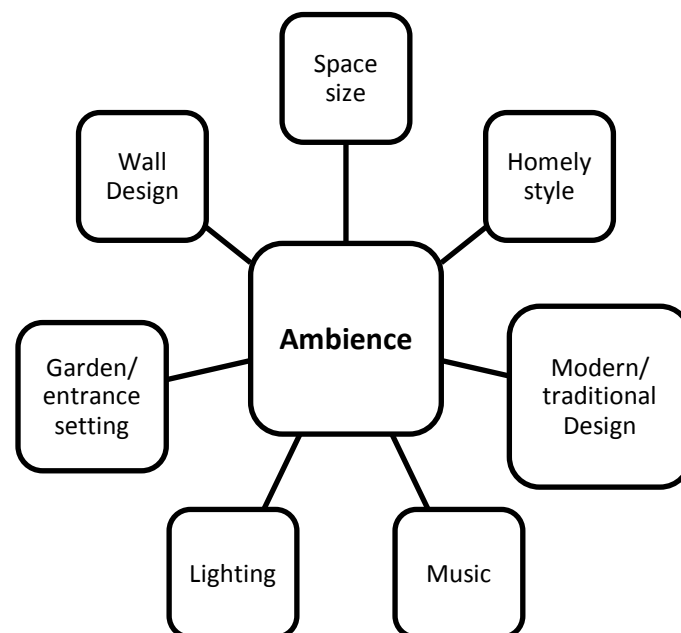


Figure 6.4 : Factors to augment coffee shop ambience

These factors identified by the participants contributed to the pleasant ambience of the outlet. This complements findings from a study by Bitner (1992):

A complex mix of environmental features constitutes the servicescape and influence internal responses and behaviours. Specifically, the dimensions of the physical surroundings include all of the objective physical factors that can be controlled by the firm to enhance (or constrain) employee and customer actions. Those factors include an endless list of possibilities, such as lighting, colour, signage, textures, quality of materials, style of furnishings, layout, wall decor, temperature and so on (p. 65).

Several of the present study's participants went beyond the attributes shown in Figure 6.4, with the aim of providing greater comfort for their customers and an enhanced distinctiveness. Among the steps taken by these participants were a café in a home concept, providing an exclusive environment, having seasonal decorations for a fresh look, and ensuring an appropriate room temperature (Figure 6.5).

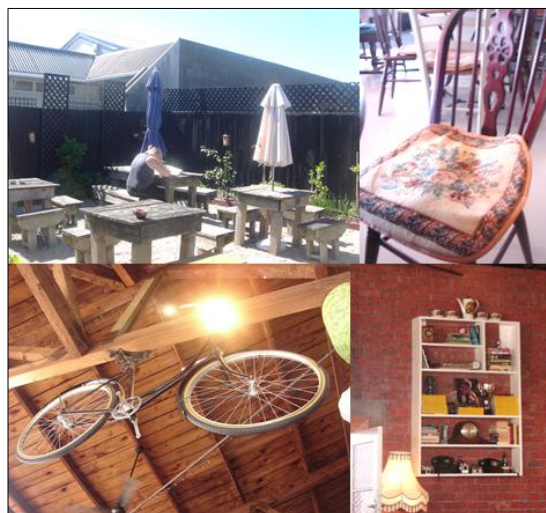


Figure 6.5 : Photos taken from participating outlets

Aligned with Bitner's (1990) view, the majority of the participants were also conscious of a growing interest in interior and exterior designs. Having an appropriate design had a positive effect on purchasing as it helped send messages that enhanced the outlet's image and influenced the customers' expectations.

The quest for brand identity permeated the conception process. However, the ICS participants in general focused less on building brand identity in maintaining their corporate images. For example, Luke from ICS 04 showed his lack of concern for the design of his shop in relation to his business when he stated, “This is all in place when I got here, so I am doing cooking and managing.” Another participant shared his experience in redecorating the outlet:

Everything is very rough, the restaurant was in a very bad shape.
So we invested a lot of money. We designed the whole interior ...
decorate it again (Hunter, ICS 01).

Hunter put a lot of effort into designing the outlet; however, due to his lack of concern with the identity of the shop, he did not fully integrate the design of the outlet with the overall concept of the shop. This was not likely to have happened in a franchise-owned outlet: it is commonly known that franchises provide many advantages when opening a new coffee shop, among them having the brand identity created and developed in advance. ICS participants, however, generated their own identity, mostly by the initiative of the coffee shop owner. The following sections will analyse how the ICS participants moulded their outlet’s identity.

6.1.3 Personality of the leader

Participants from these ICS were the leaders in their outlets. In this research, it was obvious that the personality of the leader influenced the outlets’ conception process. Enthusiastic and passionate leaders apparently had a stronger drive in managing their coffee shops. Christine from ICS14 shared her passion for working with people, which she had even before joining the food and beverage industry.

I left school and I did education in diploma in cooking. And then I worked in a restaurant in New York, America. And I came back and I work for a year. And then I start my nursing at the hospital. So, I thought if I did not like nursing, I got something that I am already trained at. But I did like nursing, and so, I did umm from 1983 to 1998, I did nursing. 15 years nursing. My mother also is a cook, and so we used to do lunches and weddings and things like that. So now I got two children they are both at school, and so three years ago we thought what can we do for business for ourselves. And so, because I had hospitality [background] I did not want to go back [to] nursing. I decided I would come back to hospitality.

The researcher then asked Christine about the differences between working in a hospital and in the food and beverage outlet. Christine responded:

Umm, to be honest, it is actually very similar. Because it's about people skills, you know, about talking to people, and giving good service, and if you are a good nurse, you are compassionate, and what I like about the hospitality is, most people when they come out they will not be [Christine made a sad face]... they choose to come out and have a nice time. I think it is very important for me to know my customers. And that I know them and kind of, and have a good day with them. We know... yeah, after few times been here, you know what kind of coffee they are having, and you say, Would you like it normal?

And so it's for our sales and I was also quite frustrated with the hospital and lack of basic equipments, kind of starting and things like that... so... and things... you know it's more your destiny, basically for ourselves. So that is why... [laugh]

Christine exhibited her passion openly: she was truly enjoying what she was doing at that moment. The commitment that Christine had showed in her outlet; the expression of her passion for cooking and a personality that loved being with people.

Another participant, Lorelai from ICS 07, showed a deep attachment to her coffee shop when she said, "... you have to be able to devote a lot of your life to the business." Devote was a strong word to associate oneself with his or her business. Lorelai's evidence of attachment to her coffee shop was then strengthened when she elaborated more on what she meant by "devoting your life to the business":

You cannot just come in and fire orders off – you have to actually do the work and I am always here doing the work with all my staff. So you have to be able to do that. You have also got to be the manager of the people. So you've got to set yourself slightly above them, but they have also got to see that you can do the work. But then you have actually got to devote some time to actually thinking about the business, so you have got to maintain your vision, and you have still got to be that entrepreneur on the side, so it's really hard to devote or divide those three out equally. If one outweighs the other, you know, in times when I have been working physically hard work, I just been so busy and so

stretched, I just have not had a chance to think about the business or the staff, or my family or anything, I am just so tired. You have to try and divide yourself into three bits. Someone gave me that advice many years ago – it is very helpful to do that. It is not just about making muffins and making coffee.

Lorelai put her point across by concluding her explanation with “It is not just about making muffins and making coffees”; it was bigger than that. This research aimed to examine the ways and processes to produce a unique brand identity, and having enthusiastic and passionate leaders was one of the ingredients, as shown in Figure 6.6.

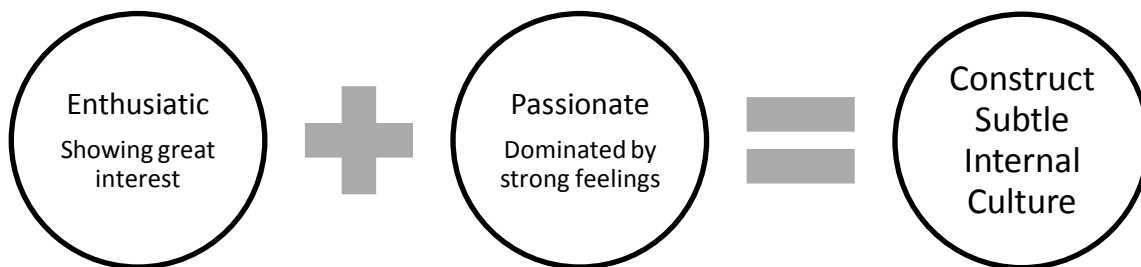


Figure 6.6 : Construction of a subtle internal culture

The ICS owners were likely to make innovative plans. Nevertheless, while they displayed enthusiasm and passion, the leadership style of the ICS owners was not readily apparent. They appeared to have a subtle strategy of managing their employees and applying the basic rules of daily life, as shown by Ben from ICS 03:

... if my workers are happy, I am happy as well. And when they are happy, you will be happy. They will stay (in the coffee shop) and they will make you happy too. It is important, really. It is really important to get on well and be honest with the staff. If you respect them, yes, they will respect you. But if you treat them bad, then they do not look after you. You will have to find the limit as well; you have to have some limits. Some people they tend to use your kindness, taking advantage. But we have to know the limits. We have to find it. That part is really important.

By being subtle in his approach to managing his employees, Ben believed that he had the right formula to keep everyone, including the customers, happy and, at the same time, to create a positive internal culture for them to follow. Even during the interview session with

Ben, the researcher felt very comfortable and at ease with his welcoming personality; he was very accommodating, telling stories about his past and showing pictures of his coffee shops. Ben projected a strong personality - a characteristic which plays a very important role in shaping an organisation or an outlet.

ICS owners did not have any written mission or vision to share with their employees; they seemed uncertain about their future goals. Christine and Hillary, both ICS participants, responded with a lot of uncertainty when asked about their future plans. For example, Christine: “Wow! [laugh] It is hard, it is hard to know. Given the current climate, it will be nice to open some more cafes. Umm ... and I will just have to see... yeah,” (Christine, ICS 14). Christine demonstrated uncertainty about future plans. However, even with their uncertainty, the ICS owners were committed to their outlets. This circumstance can best be explained by going back to the substance of personality and the values they held to. For the owners who had immense enthusiasm and strong passions, this may have contributed to building a strong internal culture and helped them in sustaining the organisation’s wellbeing for the present and the future, despite being uncertain.

Leadership skills were also important in sustaining the organisation’s wellbeing, the lack of which can greatly hamper the performance of any institution or association. Senge (2006) highlighted that “Leaders who appreciate organisations as living systems design work differently,” (p. 321). Instead of just acting as designers of the organisation, Senge insisted that leaders should be 'participants' in the organisation.

However, there are many dimensions to being a good leader. The ICS owners were mostly driven by their enthusiasm and passions, both essential in a leader. Their personalities and continued learning from managing the organisation (Senge, 2006) could give them the experience necessary to overcome their weaknesses (for example, unclear organisational goals) and turn them into strengths that would help them succeed. This finding is also in agreement with Rode and Vallaster’s (2005) discovery on the influence of small business owners personality and perspectives.

6.1.4 The 'do it myself' attitude and length of time in the industry

The coffee shop owners in this study displayed similar management skills, regardless of the length of time they had spent in the industry or their ICS positions. This finding contradicted those of other scholars (Senge, 2006). ICS owners seemed driven by their deep passion and used practicality to manage the outlet. The time and energy spent in an outlet did not necessarily determine how efficiently the coffee shop was managed. This deduction was based on the quotes below: Christine had been operating her coffee shop for three years, while Mike had just started his coffee shop three weeks prior to the interview with the researcher.

I said to myself, if I am asking someone to do something, am I prepared to do it myself? I will never ask somebody to do what I would not do. So ... [noise] which is very important I think... you know, I am the owner and I will go and wash dishes. I will go make the slices or go and clean the bins or [do] whatever needs to be done. I am not asking anyone to do anything that I would not do myself. (Christine, ICS 14)

Well, basically, I do not know – I am a new owner. This is the first time I have done this so at the moment I am still learning myself. So – but you know, you have got to be fair – you do not – you cannot expect your staff to do everything; you have got to be doing it as well. And sort of lead from the front, sort of, yeah. (Mike, ICS 11)

Both quotes align with Zeithmal, Parasuraman and Berry's (1990) suggestion that service leaders should "employ hands-on approach to build a climate of teamwork within the organisation" (p. 7). Although length of time and energy spent were less important in determining efficiency, the personality of the owner again played a major role in the efficient management or operation of the coffee shop by doing things by themselves first before asking the employees to do it. As Woods put it (1989), "'Hard Work' had different meanings at different operations, but the basic idea was the same - a hands-on approach to management" (p. 94).

6.1.5 Introducing the inventive fresh concept

It was stated earlier that ICS have characteristics that make them different from other coffee shops. In this study, the researcher noticed that introducing new, fresh concepts and being

distinctive created an advantage for these ICSs. This is aligned with Shostack's (1977) suggestion that fresh concepts are necessary in service marketing. A fresh concept is required to attract new customers and could also be an opportunity for the owners to venture into a new market.

The participant from ICS 05, Gerard, had introduced a new, fresh concept in his outlet: fair trade. Gerard described the concept he wanted to introduce to the community: "The fair trade concept. We want to advertise and educate people about fair trade. They need to know, to be aware of this concept. It is important to understand the fair trade concept." He then explained the length of time they had taken to design the concept and create the coffee shop brand identity:

We do all our branding. All the concept [controllable aspects of the brand]. We renovated this place on our own. We worked on it for almost four years to set up this place. It is a big learning curve for us. This place was actually a garage before we transformed it.
(Gerard, ICS 05)

The image in Figure 6.7 could be seen on every table in Gerard's coffee shop, with the menu on the reverse of this stand (Figure 6.8). Gerard and the other founder of the coffee shop put in the extra effort they thought necessary to educate their community about the importance of supporting fair trade and giving back to poorer communities. It was stated on the stand that every year they invested their profits back into the communities that had been providing them with their high quality products (coffee beans).

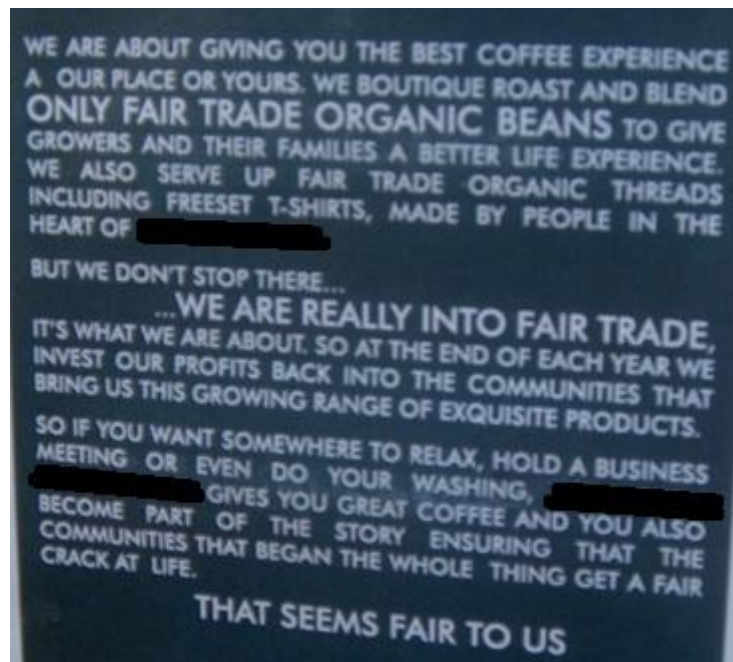


Figure 6.7 : A table stand on every coffee table in the outlet to demonstrate commitment to fair trade

During the interview session, Gerard repeatedly brought up their objective to educate their customers on the importance of supporting fair trade and in giving back to poorer communities. This determination and the detailed plan for the innovative concept had, within the first few months of running the coffee shop, achieved a doubling of profits and a daily increase in customers.



Figure 6.8 : Stand menu on the coffee table



Figure 6.9 : A large blackboard on the outlet wall indicating the use of 100% fair trade coffee

Another participant, Maxwell from ICS 02, hesitated about the concept for his outlet but, at the same time, projected his future vision for his coffee shop. Maxwell tried to imitate a concept design from his previous experience, which was an amalgamation of a coffee shop and a book shop:

Originally, because we did think, is this going to work? If this works, we will build it all over the country. This is apparently in the States. We have been to the States, there are a lot of these concepts overseas - bookshop/café kind of thing. I think if you visit, there are one or two in Auckland. Yeah, it is also a kind of life. It is kind of work that you enjoy, that is the thing and a whole lot of... pleasure, doing things that you enjoy doing, doing things that people enjoy.

Despite his hesitancy about the success of the concept, Maxwell has managed the outlet for 17 years. The atmosphere in the outlet was the outcome of continuous effort, which included introducing new dishes and drinks to the menu, hiring a skilled barista and the arrangement of the bookshelves. These activities, according to Maxwell, enhanced his unique concept and helped to achieve the outlet's special identity. These two examples from the participants represented an application of business and artistic intelligence that distinguished them from other independent coffee shops.

The field research indicated that the majority of owners had a concept for their coffee shop but did not put much effort into enhancing it. While they were aware of the steps that should

be taken to further develop their distinctive concept (for example, constant new promotions, appropriate ambience), many owners found it unnecessary or less important when compared to service quality; they focused more on the interaction with customers, food preparation and creating a relaxed environment for their customers.

In any business that you do, someone who is coming from the door, who had a warm welcome, it is important. Let say, in any business, doesn't matter what kind of business, it is important. This is what I believe. It's my personal belief, but I do notice other people who don't. It's me. I am expecting the people... you know, I mean, anyone who comes here, they should feel relaxed and comfortable, they should feel like their home, they come here and relax and have a meal, you know, for whatever, lunch or coffee or tea, they should feel you know, relaxed. (Ben, ICS 03)

The current research went beyond service quality to explore the deeper associations with the outlet itself among the owners or the creators of the outlets. Food, beverage and service, in general, are competitive industries. Therefore, to be identified as distinctive is necessary if owners want to stand out from the competition. Having business and artistic intelligence is a particular advantage in this context.

Many elements contributed to building a unique identity for the ICS. Among the elements found among the participating coffee shops were the design of the outlet, floor plan, architecture, colours, furnishings, the fair trade concept and the location of the outlet. ICS outlets might lack experience in creating a brand identity, but despite that managed to distinguish themselves by deciding on their concept. It was hard to find similarities in the outlet format among the independent coffee shops; they were extremely diverse, particularly in concept design.

Developing fresh ideas and applying them to business practice conferred a distinct advantage in building brand identity. Every organisation should have something that differentiates it from other outlets (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003; Ghodeswar, 2008; Keller, 1999; Kevin Lane & Keith, 2006). 'Know thyself' was an ancient Greek personal philosophy that could well be applied in modern corporations (Keefe, 2007) in order to be exclusive in this huge industry.

6.1.6 Section Summary

The data from the interviews brought into focus how brand identity emerged from the vision and drive of the owners of the businesses. Developing an appropriate identity through the meaning of brand name, having a distinctive identification creation process, enthusiastic and passionate leaders, the 'do it myself' mantra from the leaders as an example to the employees, and introducing fresh concepts are the recommendations from this thesis towards having a distinctive brand identity.

6.2 The fundamentals of internal organisational culture within the food and beverage industry

The previous section focused on the importance of brand identity building within an organisation. In this section, the researcher will focus on the internal cultural practices. Four fundamentals were found from this research that could be practised in an organisation to perpetuate the cultural value set of the business. These are: 1) employees' mastery of routine operations; 2) the exercise of internal marketing; 3) identification of personal values in each individual in the organisation; and 4) factors influencing employees' values and motivations.

6.2.1 Routine operations in a food and beverage outlet

Routine operations in the outlets were observed in order to gain a deeper understanding of the practices in the outlet. These sorts of behaviours can be similar to operational checklists, where the owner checks off the completion of daily tasks. It was evident in the coffee shops that the continuous practice of routines or rituals⁹ (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005) morphed into culture-mandated activities, because things were done the same way every time.

The participants were largely well aware of the compulsory routines required before, during and after the outlet's operating hours. The breakdown of the checklists into sections (for example, preparation, cleaning and serving) made these routine operations straightforward and efficient. Two of the participants demonstrated their actual routine operations before and during the early morning hours of operation of their outlets. Jason and Maxwell (ICS 06 and

⁹ Ritual is defined as a procedure regularly followed in the same way every time (Hornby, 2005). A ritual is one of the four elements discussed in Hofstede's Onion Culture model.

02, respectively) knew exactly what they needed to do and who would be doing what for the tasks that needed to be accomplished.

It is also time consuming. Because it is only two of us working... managing this place. Me and my partner. She cooks and I do all the management part. And it is a routine everyday we need to do the same thing and it is getting tiring. (Jason, ICS 06)

Well I am just, take care the bookstore, so I, basically I came in and I do the banking and check on the internet and set the orders, do ordering for books, and things out there. The café, they get in there... they do the cooking and muffin. (Maxwell, ICS 02)

Both participants focused on their daily routines, suggesting that it was important to have a good practice to avoid any hitches during the operating hours. Besides, there were also other important daily routines such as ordering the raw food, balancing the accounts and cleaning and maintaining the coffee shop. These were fundamental practices constituting part of the internal culture of each coffee shop. The daily repetition of these practices by the employees slowly morph into a culture and become part of the organisation's rituals. Further, these internal practices were exercises in internal marketing.

6.2.2 Internal marketing

Internal marketing is linked strongly to developing new organisational cultures in this study. This finding aligned with previous research showing that internal marketing played an important role in developing new cultures (George, 1990). Internal marketing stimulated employees to deliver high quality service to customers and at the same time fulfilled the objectives of the organisation. In service industries, internal marketing has two main functions: first, to align employees' views with the concept of the brand and what was being promoted to customers, and secondly, to emphasise that employees are also customers who need to be communicated with and made to feel appreciated in order to carry out these two focal issues of internal marketing (Davies, 2008).

Internal marketing can be examined for its meaning and contribution to three inter-related aspects of business operations. First, hiring the most appropriate people begins the process of

marketing the organisation to employees. Second, enhancing employee involvement will likely increase their motivation to carry out their tasks. Third, contributing to the involvement and motivation to excel was instrumental in creating perpetuating organisational culture.

Employee recruitment

Descriptions of employee recruitment processes were sought from the coffee shop owners. Owners largely looked for employees who would fit into their current team and the internal culture of the outlet. It was found that experience and skill were not the main determinants for becoming part of the outlet; instead, a compatible personality was the most sought-after characteristic. Although owners were aware of the importance of recruiting employees with experience and skills in order to deliver efficient service, they were also cautious when recruiting for special positions such as cooks and baristas. For them, they valued personality first and foremost:

When you going someone for a staff, one of the biggest thing is a personality. You can teach anyone to do anything but if you don't have the right personality which I cannot sell it out, I cannot teach you that, something that we have to have. So I would pretty much look for personality, all these good manners, the way you treat customers. (Patrick, ICS 09)

Patrick's statement seemed to contradict O'Connor (2005), who recommended recruiting employees with experience and necessary skills. While both views are true, in an industry such as food and beverage, personality and people skills are likely to have a greater impact when dealing with customers. O'Connor's view was also relevant, in order to bring service quality to the highest level. Another owner felt it was not an issue to recruit inexperienced employees:

Personality, enthusiasm, some experience, but they do not need to be umm... like a café attendant. We realise that some people join the workforce for the first time. So we employ quite a few young people as well. (Sam, ICS 13)

Sam's relaxed view might be due to her youth, as she clearly wanted to offer more chances for young people to grow their experience while working in her outlet. Sam's views on

employee recruitment might also have been a result of the location of the outlet: ICS 13 was located out of the city. Given Sam's casual nature, it was understandable that she might not be so meticulous about recruiting new employees.

Hunter, from ICS 01, had a slightly different approach to recruiting. Hunter's coffee shop was located near an educational institution. Many applications for work in the outlet came from students of that institution. To be part of Hunter's coffee shop team, potential employees needed to send in their curriculum vitae (CV) and academic transcript to ensure their capability and focus:

They will need to send CV first if they want to work here. I will look at the marks and their timetable. I make sure they have good marks. Most of them are students. I make sure they can focus on their studies. (Hunter, ICS 01)

This thoughtful and unusual approach reflected Hunter's sense of responsibility in recruiting student employees. Hunter ensured that his employees had good academic records and were able to divide their time between study and work. In doing that, Hunter also indirectly ensured his employees could focus on their job at the outlet knowing their academic performance was under control. Again, an employee's work experience was not important for recruitment.

Lorelai, from ICS 07, had a straightforward approach to recruiting. She believed in word-of-mouth and made the recruitment process for her ICS very informal and relaxed, relying on current employees and friends for recommendations. Employing the recommendation approach (by individuals she knew) might be the reason behind the well-controlled and energetic coffee shop environment. The friendly service and lively atmosphere created by the employees was probably due to the easy going approach established by Lorelai when recruiting:

I haven't really hired many people, in that I've only advertised once. We have a lot of young people starting that keep coming back year after year that work through the year, which is great. We have a lot of local people that... word-of-mouth, they'll approach me, or I'll say to them, have you thought about it? Would you like to come and try out and work at the café? So we don't really have a formal process of employing people.

I think it's because we're community based and then a lot of the girls that come to work, they'll say, 'Oh I've got a friend that I've worked with, or a friend that I was at school with and she'd like a job', and I'll say to them, 'Is she like you, is she good?' And they'll say 'yes'. And I'll say 'Tell her to come along', and that's how we get people. They just come. They'll start off and I'll just say at the end of the day, 'What did you think, did you enjoy it?' They'll say, 'Yeah, I loved it'. I'll say, 'Well great. Would you like to come back?' And that's how it happens. (Lorelai, ICS 07)

These different approaches to recruitment depended to a considerable extent on the nature of the outlet and the owner's style and personality. Most approaches were informal. Alonso and O'Neill (2011) advised hospitality operators to make the most of the recruitment process as an opportunity to raise the level of quality in potential employees. While creating and maintaining the coffee shop's own internal culture, it was important to select prospective employees with suitable characteristics to fit in with the team. "The notion of 'fit in' was a recurring theme in the literature on recruitment in small firms," (Carroll, et al. 1999).

For owners of participating ICS, finding the right 'fit' with the team was part of maintaining and deepening the existing internal culture. It was an important part of ensuring the new employee's involvement as a team player who could adapt to the way things were done in the outlet. Clearly, it was also therefore important in creating, fostering and carrying a brand identity forward.

Employee involvement

The internal marketing seen in the ICS studied here largely revolved around teamwork. Owners believed that having good, cooperative teamwork was important to strengthening the coffee shop's routine. According to Drake, Gulman and Roberts (2005) "... a cooperative atmosphere is more conducive to productivity," (p. 177). Mishra (2009) however stated that it was internal marketing that led to better teamwork. The current study indicated that both internal marketing and teamwork worked in parallel and complemented each other; it would be difficult to build internal marketing without good teamwork.

Christine, from ICS 14, emphasised the importance of teamwork in order to ensure smooth service in her coffee shop. She took a proactive approach by recruiting staff who had the right characteristics to fit into her coffee shop team:

There is no amount of teaching somebody. You can tell them and tell them... but they will not use their own initiative to do it...
(pause) So you have to be careful on who you employing, because if you does not, than they will not be perfect to work in a team.
(Christine, ICS 14)

Employee involvement in the coffee shop routines seemed to enhance teamwork. Teams respond and perform better when leaders openly appreciated them (Ahmed, et al. 2010). Teamwork assisted with the training systems of coffee shops. In coffee shops or any service outlet, it is necessary to have training in place for routine, as well as unusual or unexpected situations (King and Grace, 2007, p. 364; Ottenbacher, Gnoth, and Jones, 2006). Furthermore, it is essential to have appropriate and continuous training when dealing with everyday routines to maintain good customer interactions. Yagil (2006) said this helped to minimise stress and burnout among the employees:

However, for employees with a strong power motivation, an empowerment programme would seem to be important both as a means of buffering the stress involved in unsatisfactory relationships with customers and as a way of increasing motivation. Yet, since employees with a strong power motivation are highly vulnerable to the adverse effects of disrespectful customer behavior, they might benefit from training programmes to prepare them for such behaviours and generate an appropriate mindset for coping with them. (p. 8)

Coffee shop owners use various approaches in training their employees. According to Durocher (1990), a number of owners provided a formal training guide and used a 'buddy system' approach in introducing new employees to the way things are done in the coffee shop. This study found that ICS owners did not use any specific approach. Owners usually let their new employees become familiar with the way they did things in the coffee shop by learning from observation: new employees were expected to do things as the other members of the outlet did.

The buddy system, also known as the pairing system, is where a senior employee or manager works alongside a new employee for a period of a few days to allow them to gain familiarity with the systems. However, this system can have a negative impact, if the senior employee or manager is unable to train the new employee in a standard manner (Durocher, 1990). Durocher suggested using media training¹⁰ as a support to ensure the uniformity of training. However, the respondents in Durocher's research were mainly large franchise organisations who were able to purchase this costly media training approach. Such was not the case for the current ICS owners, since most of the participants were from small to medium sized coffee shops.

Face-to-face interaction has been shown to have a greater impact on practical learning. Using a buddy system or something similar (for example, a pairing system or one-to-one training) is probably best for a small outlet because it is a relatively effortless and efficient way of guiding and monitoring a new employee. Hunter from ICS 01 believed that training his new employees with a manual and practices would lessen the anxiety of the employee. He shared his method of training in a manual:

We have a training course. So when they joined, I will give them the manual for them. They will also have to practice. (Hunter, ICS 01)

Similar to Hunter, Christine (ICS 14) had a 'starter pack' that she used to train her new employees and help them in getting familiar with the routines in the outlet:

We have a kind of starter pack, so that they could expect what we want from them. And they will work for myself or my manager. We know that we trained them in the way we would like them to work. (Christine, ICS 14)

Besides one-to-one training, owners use other approaches to coach their employees to achieve the desired standard quality (Ladyshevsky, 2010). Ardichvili (2001) noted that "the role of a manager is to provide guidance, protection and care to the subordinate; the subordinate, in return, is loyal and defers to the superior," (p. 366).

¹⁰Media training: using a media platform to train the employees using DVDs.

However, getting the employee to perform according to the owner's expectations may need more than training. The owners of ICS in the current research largely agreed that communication was a vital element in generating understanding.

Communication. Need to have good communication. Everyone is treated equally here. From the managers to the waitress and also the cleaner. (Gerard, ICS 05)

It is communication, really, and listening. Kind of the main... they go hand in hand. If you cannot communicate well [pause] you are listening to somebody as well. [pause] I have high standards. Our competency, really, it is the main thing. (Christine, CIS 14)

These findings were similar to Lockwood's (2007) views that "clear, consistent and honest communication was an important management tool for employee engagement," (p. 5). Similarly, Vallaster and de Chernatony (2005) stated that:

Communication triggers cognitive and affective consequences. The positive outcome of the affective dimension are increased identification with and commitment to the organisation, leading to satisfaction, loyalty and valuable social relationships (p. 185).

Communication can be defined from various perspectives. It can be a verbal or non-verbal, formal or non-formal. Lorelai from ICS 07 explained her action-oriented approach to coaching her employees:

... in equal parts you have to be the technician; you have to be the person who's actually in there doing the work. You can't just come in and fire orders off – you have to actually do the work and I'm always here doing the work with all my staff. So you have to be able to do that. You've also got to be the manager of the people. So you've got to set yourself slightly above them, but they've also got to see that you can do the work.

By doing things herself before asking her employees to, Lorelai showed her non-verbal involvement and ability to do tasks in the coffee shop. This implies that if she (as the owner) can do the job, then any employee should be able to do it. Among other related acts to demonstrate employee's involvement in the outlet were to be able to 'keep an eye' on things

in the shop; for example, to clean a table right after a customer has left, or to ask customers if they need another drink. It is interesting to note that this was similar to Mayfield and Mayfield (2002), who encouraged owners to learn and adapt to various styles in engaging with their employees. The merging of these internal involvement elements (teamwork, training and communication) may add to building the internal culture in the outlet. Here, the findings indicated that the owners' and employees' involvement in practising these elements of internal marketing were very much part of the internal culture existing in the outlet and could lead to motivating the employees.

Employee motivation

The participants in this study emphasised the involvement of every individual in the coffee shop as vital to ensuring good service. In order to gain such involvement, it was necessary to understand the factors that generated motivation. The owners had different views on the factors that motivated their employees to perform better in the outlet. Reward systems, incentives for progress and celebrating events on special occasions were among the approaches taken by owners. This aligned with Deci's (1972) assertion that employees need to be given rewards as well as competitive salaries. However, in the current research, none of the participants mentioned promotion, as suggested by Deci. Most of the participating coffee shops had only two levels of worker: owner(s) and employees. This was probably due to the size of the outlets, and small numbers of employees in each outlet, where promotion to a higher position was not available.

To keep employees motivated was vital. This was especially so in a small outlet. Christine, from ICS 14, practised the subtle approach:

If there is a problem with somebody not giving his good at service, we will speak to them on a casual way, and try to help them, and encourage them to do better. (Christine, ICS 14)

The approaches used by Christine were similar to Peter's (2005) so-called "employee friendly leaders" (p. 588). These were leaders who were creative in selecting the appropriate means of communication. Expressions of appreciation and consideration by owners contributed to employee retention and led to low employee turnover. This finding paralleled studies by Bell

and Menguc (2002) that indicated supportive and cordial relations generated a positive environment and led to higher levels of employee retention. Christine's efforts also encouraged employee appreciation at ICS 14.

Consideration in communication with members of the outlet develops stronger engagement. Such action may encourage employees to feel a sense of belonging to the outlet and result in greater contribution, while lack of appreciation may easily break the relationship. "At work, the drive to bond accounts for the enormous boost in motivation when employees feel proud of belonging to the organisation and for their loss of morale when the institution betrays them," (Nohria, Groysberg, and Lee, 2008, pp. 2-3). Therefore, it was vital to ensure every employee was taken care of and appreciated, to encourage a sense of belonging to the brand and to being part of the brand.

Another approach used by some of the ICS owners to encourage employee motivation and engagement was through performance appraisals. In this research, it was found that the owners did not rely on appraisals alone to measure their employees' performance. Instead, they used the performance appraisal system to encourage the employees to perform better before undertaking an appraisal assessment. Christine (ICS 14) described her approach:

We have an approval system for the team. So, we have 3 and 6 and 12 month appraisals for people. And also, once every year, there is an annual appraisal. So, my manager and I also make sure that we will have good communication with the [inaudible]. (Christine, ICS 14)

In this way the employees were more prepared and had the opportunity to improve their performance before having to go through the real appraisal process. Employees were able to reflect on their performance in the outlet; whether they were doing the task correctly or needed to improve on it. The owners also had the chance to give feedback to their employees about their good performance. Acknowledging employees for their good performance augmented their motivation and satisfaction at work (Mahmood and Ali, 2011). Wiese and Buckley (1998) outlined the evolution of appraisal systems and the uncomfortable impact they can have on employers and employees.

Effective managers recognize performance appraisal systems as a tool for managing, rather than a tool for measuring, subordinates. They may use performance appraisals to motivate, direct and develop subordinates and to maximize access to important resources in the organisation. (p. 233)

While they acknowledged that the process was unsatisfactory in most organisations, performance appraisal was still required in order to reward employees for their outstanding performance. Sam from an ICS 13 did not have an appropriate appraisal system. He believed being attentive to his employees' actions would assist him in monitoring them. When asked how he monitored his employees, Sam responded "We all do. We can tell. Keep an eye on things." This owner's attitude towards performance appraisal aligned with other scholars (Evans and Lindsay, 1999; Longenecker, Sims, and Gioia, 1987; Wiese and Buckley, 1998). Longenecker, Sims and Gioia (1987) explained the possible psychological impacts of the employer using performance appraisal. They concluded that:

Perhaps the most interesting finding from our study (because it debunks a popular mythology) is that accuracy is not the primary concern of the practising executive in appraising subordinates. The main concern is how best to use the appraisal process to motivate and reward subordinates. Hence, managerial discretion and effectiveness, not accuracy, are the real watchwords. Managers made it clear that they would not allow excessively accurate ratings to cause problems for themselves, and that they attempted to use the appraisal process to their own advantage (p. 191).

In this research, besides performance appraisals, a monitoring system was also used by owners to keep motivation high among the team members.

Because it is small, myself and my sister do the monitoring. The two of us initially will ensure, make sure we teach how it is done... so... yeah... but also you train the staff, so they know what to do. (Rachel, ICS 08)

Rachel used a self-monitoring system to ensure the service quality was as desired, and immediately communicated with an employee if any issues arose. Rachel's approach

demonstrated an active engagement in monitoring employees, as explained by Waryszak and King (2001):

Monitoring may be characterised as passive and as an activity of detached observation rather than of an active engagement. As described in the previous section, managers in the hospitality and retail sectors may be expected to prefer a work style that is centred on personal interaction with staff and customers as well as a 'hands-on' approach to problem solving. These managers may prefer not to engage in passive activities (p. 202).

In summary, internal marketing played a pivotal role in building and maintaining the internal culture in the ICS studied. Events such as the recruitment process, employee involvement and employee motivation had major functions in nurturing the internal culture of the outlets. Internal marketing revolved mostly around the personal characteristics and value of every individual in the organisation. This was in line with Bitner's (1995) thought that "In order for employees and service systems to deliver on the promises made, they must have the skills, abilities, tools, and motivation to deliver," (p. 246). The next section will further examine personal characteristics and values for every individual in an organisation.

6.2.3 Values identified in internal organisational cultures

Values practised in the coffee shops were among the core elements focused on in this study. Participants were asked about the values they used in their outlets that were important in forming a constructive internal culture that would result in a lively atmosphere in the outlet. The values that emerged from the interviews with the coffee shop owners were classified into three groups:

1. Values for recruitment
2. Values for customer service
3. Values for retention

Values for recruitment

Values were among the most important considerations when recruiting employees to be part of the team. It was found that friendliness was the most desirable value when recruiting

coffee shop employees. Ben from ICS 03 and few other participants believed that being friendly was essential to engaging with the customers and immediately recruited an employee for that reason alone. Gerard, from ICS 05, emphasised providing friendly services and entertainment to every customer that enters the outlet. Hillary from ICS 10 also emphasised friendly services and a young, friendly attitude. This demonstrated the importance of friendliness in the food and beverage industry (Stuart and Tax, 1996).

Friendly, smile, give this you know... a home... welcome... that is my principles...Then, if we are here, there are some reasons we are here. There will be pain, whatever happen, be nice and be friendly, make it like a home. Treat someone like human. (Ben, ICS 03)

Friendly service. Make sure we entertain everyone that comes in. (Gerard, ICS 05)

I think it's good service and friendly, young friendly attitude, good quality food and drink and products, like as far as the gifts are good quality. (Hillary, ICS 10)

They walk in and they feel quite comfortable because it's not threatening to them; so we try to carry on with that to make it friendly for young and old. (Lorelai, ICS 07)

Well obviously we are looking for skills; we are looking for attitude really. I mean it's a fast pace sort of business, you know. You really need people to work at speed and get on their feet, and have, you know, good friendly manners and can make coffee, one of the big secret. (Maxwell, ICS 02)

Genuine smiles and being bubbly and approachable were among the 'must have' values or attributes when recruiting employees for their coffee shops. Other attributes that were important, according to the owners, were being hardworking, happy, patient, enjoying being with people, independent, responsible, honest, respectful and passionate. These attributes played a key role in strengthening the internal culture and creating a deeper emotional connection with the customers, as well as ensuring a harmonious atmosphere in the coffee shop.

The same attributes also applied to the owners. However, there were a few owners who were less friendly during the interview or who did not seem to represent the values they deemed

important. One of the reasons for this could be that they may have been stressed by the busy customer traffic at the coffee shop, since the researcher interviewed them during trading hours.

Values for customer service

Customer service values were those related to dealing with the customers. The participants in this study offered essential insights into how they communicated with their customers. Zoe from ISC 15 had 18 years' experience in the coffee shop business and was passionate about the treatment of customers. She stressed the need to treat customers as if they were guests in the employees' own homes:

Treat them... as they come in to your home... that is what I think of this place. Making sure that we do anything... if it's not on the menu, we will make it up. (Zoe, ICS 15)

Jason from ICS 06 added (on the importance of having good quality home cooked food):

Serve fresh food. We make food like what you have at home.
Gives good quality service. To give customer what they want. Try to provide accordingly to what they want. (Jason, ICS 06)

Another way a coffee shop owner kept customers satisfied was by knowing their background where possible. It was normal for the owners or any member of the coffee shop to remember their regular customers and their favourite drinks when coming to the shop. Owners and employees even greeted many of their customers by name. They believed that greeting their customers and showing appreciation made customers happy.

There were many values that the owners considered essential for good customer service. The ICS owners were well aware of the need to offer the best customer service practices in order to remain in the industry. Aside from the values already discussed, other actions that derived from values and that appeared essential for good customer service provision included making customers feel welcome, portraying job satisfaction, being compassionate in the treatment of customers, being responsive to customers' queries, being attentive to every customer, showing respect to customers and being at the service of customers.

Values for industry survival

This section discusses the values necessary for industry survival, as the owners of ICS took steps to ensure their long term retention in this industry. The owners described with passion the values they held in order to provide the best customer service and to create a lively atmosphere in their outlets. These values could be divided into two categories: values relating to the customer and values among the employees. The quote below from Patrick (ICS 09) shows how he encouraged his staff to be nice and to treat their customers with good customer service, instead of just delivering their orders:

I don't pay you, your customers are paying you. I mean you still have to be nice to me or to the boss, but your customers is the most important, 'cause if they don't come to the café, I won't have money and you won't get paid, and I have to fire you, so your customer services is very important. (Patrick, ICS 09)

This demonstrates the importance of competence in keeping up with the job and customers' demands. A number of owners in this study were aware of the need to create pleasant experiences for their customers; interactions between employees and customers provided a strong foundation to determine the level of customer satisfaction. Berry, Carbone and Haeckel (2002) illustrated the importance of effective bonding with customers:

Customers always have an experience — good, bad or indifferent — whenever they purchase a product or service from a company. The key is how effectively the company manages the experience. Organisations that simply tweak design elements or focus on the customer experience in isolated pockets of their business — by providing a quick hit of entertainment, for example — will be disappointed in the results. Companies compete best when they combine functional and emotional benefits in their offerings. Emotional bonds between companies and customers are difficult for competitors to sever (p. 88).

Berry et al. (2002) added that functional and genuine emotional offerings will strengthen customer loyalty to the organisation. Therefore, it can be concluded that customer loyalty is among the determinants for industry survival. This finding was consistent with those of a number of previous researchers (Kau and Loh, 2006; Wong and Sohal, 2003; Zineldin, 2006).

While customers were an important asset in the food and beverage industry, emphasising the employee was also necessary. According to Webster and Sundaram (2009), in the service industry, employees' expertise and capability to sustain smooth relationships with customers was essential. King and Grace (2006) suggested that employees should be equipped and knowledgeable in meeting the customers' needs.

Meeting customers' basic expectations was obligatory for owners. As advised by Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml (1991), owners must understand the basic needs of customers in order to exceed their expectations. According to these authors, reliability was the most valued dimension in customer service expectation, followed by tangibles, then responsiveness, assurance and empathy.

It was interesting to find in this research that not only were the owners looking for reliability in their employees, but that they also wanted a similar reliability from their customers, so that they kept coming back to their outlet. When asked what the most important value expressed by his employees was for him, Luke, owner of ICS 04, immediately replied:

Reliability. I want somebody who is reliable. They have got to be really good with this, with the customers. Good personality. Friendly, be friendly with the customers. (Luke, ICS 04)

It was apparent from this study that owners were able to manage their employees and shape their understanding of customer service. Some owners strove to exceed their customers' minimal expectations. Jason from ICS 06 tried to achieve this by treating customers as a guest at his home instead of a customer in his coffee shop:

Reputation. We make sure we have good reputation always. Serve fresh food. We make food like what you have at home. Gives good quality service. To give customer what they want. Try to provide accordingly to what they want. (Jason, ICS 06)

Similar to Jason's deep appreciation of his customers, Zoe (ICS 15) also treated her customers as if a guest in her house. She noted that they were able to customise orders to fulfil customers' requests:

To treat them as they come into your home. That is what I think of this place. Making sure that we do everything. If it is not on the menu, we will make it up. (Zoe, ICS 15)

Another owner, Christine (ICS 14), believed that it was friendliness and values that kept customers returning to her outlet. They went beyond their expected service by greeting their customers by name and remembering their favourite drinks:

A lot of my team, they know everybody anyway. And... in the morning you can say.. oh, Jane phone. And they (the barista) just makes some decaf cappuccino one sugar, and they know its Jane's coffee, or Sharon's, or... or whoever it is. Everyone knew because most people are here for more than two years... and some of us have been three years... and some they have been here a good time. And so... people will know our customers well.

People like to know that they are appreciated that you know them. Basically you know what they like. Same goes with the food and everything like that, if you can remember. And again... that is something don't need to be taught. You either... have the ability to do it or you don't [laugh]. (Christine, ICS 14)

Other actions that derived from values and identified by participants as enhancing survival and competition in this industry were being able to multitask, to keep an eye on details, to be spontaneous in handling work 'hiccups', pre-empting difficult situations, and 'making it right' every time. Practising these behaviours ritually and comprehensively may elevate the standard of customers' expectations. This will further enhance the competitive advantage of the organisation.

6.2.4 Employee values and motivation

Enacted values were found to be the core element in constructing a culture (Burdett, 1998; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005; Kluckhohn and Mowrer, 1944; Schein, 1992). Here, the values, identified and categorised (Section 6.2.3) enhanced the internal culture in these organisations. Beyond values, this research also found that employee motivation was an important factor in constructing the internal culture. This was clearly illustrated by Christine (ICS 14):

... you should be training them in certain ways of doing things, the way you wanted it, in certain ways. But... if somebody hasn't got the eyes, you need to constantly ask them to look around. We have 15 tables inside and nine outside.

When you take something out to a customer, you're always looking to see if somebody finished their drink, would they like another one, take their dirty plate away. You know... it's the small, small things, because they make the difference. But some people, you can't teach that to them.

And you have to look or... you don't. And if you don't have that look... that kind of looking around and making sure if there anything you can help... [Christine made a sad face].

Your area might be fine, but somebody else's area might be struggling. You got to be [inaudible] into the barista station or into the kitchen. Make slices or do something to help the rest of the team out.

And if you haven't got that, there is no amount of teaching somebody. You can tell them and tell them, but if they won't use their own initiative to do it... so you have to be careful in who you employ. (Christine, ICS 14)

Christine also detailed the expectations she had of her employees. She aimed for the best quality service and expected her employees to be proactive and have an eye for detail in the outlet. Her attitude reflected this statement from Parker, Bindl and Strauss (2010): "Being proactive is about making things happen, anticipating and preventing problems, and seizing opportunities" (Parker, et al. 2010, p. 827). Participants in this study also raised the issue of motivation in relation to their initial impression of potential employees:

If something happened you've got to always pre-empt the situation and go and say, 'Look, I'm really sorry, your meal's been missed off and it's going to be another five minutes'. And if you say that they won't be angry – you can't just leave it, you've got to just actually just talk, talk, talk. And of course, the customer is always right. Just listen to what they customers say. Even if you think it's a load of rubbish you've got to say 'Okay, yeah, I'm sorry about that. What can we do to make it better?' (Lorelai, ICS 07)

Lorelai believed that an ability to pre-empt any circumstance, confidence when dealing with the customers and motivation were huge driving factors for employees in the food and

beverage industry. These traits can be expressed in having a goal to achieve a desired outcome. Bandura (1991) discussed the impact of confidence (performance), motivation and goal setting in his research. According to Bandura (1991):

Simply adopting a goal, whether an easy or challenging one, without knowing how one is doing, or knowing how one is doing in the absence of a goal, has no lasting motivational impact. But the combined influence of goals with performance feedback heightens motivation substantially (Bandura, 1991, p. 261).

In this research, the goal for the potential employee (according to the owners) could be to gain experience in the food and beverage industry. Therefore, to join an outlet and achieve the goal, potential employees were required to have the right personality with the appropriate values, as potential employees will support the growth of the outlet and fit into the outlets' internal culture and further enhance the outlets' potential.

Thus, in order to assist owners in the selection of reliable potential employees, a quadrant approach is introduced, as shown in Figure 6.10 below. Generally, the quadrant approach is used to portray the existence of difference levels of 'mind' (Chandler and Owen, 2002, p. 27). It offers four unique ways of looking at the same situation. For this research, a Quadrant of Values and Motivation (Figure 6.10) was presented based on the views of the participants. The quadrant format, adapted from Covey (1989), summarised the identification of values of individuals involved in an outlet, the motivation they have, and provided the relationships between values and motivation among members of the organisation.

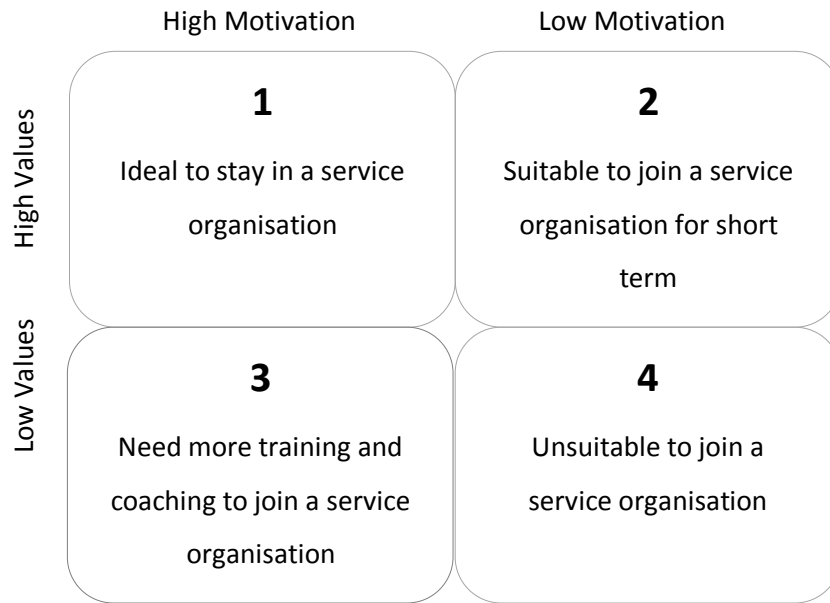


Figure 6.10 : Quadrant of internal culture derived from the owners' perspectives

Referring to the quadrant above, to be successful in this industry the researcher found that the employees' motivation was equally as important as their value for maintaining and enhancing the internal culture. The following discussion on the quadrant was based on the findings from these two elements, employee values (refer to Section 6.2.3) and employee motivation (refer to Section 6.2.2). These elements were relevant to constructing a quadrant since they emerged from among the determinant ingredients in providing fundamentals for the internal culture of businesses in this research.

An employee who has high motivation and appropriate values (quadrant 1) will most likely stay longer in the food and beverage industry. Such employees were an asset to the industry. The second quadrant represented employees with comparatively low motivation who might stay for the short term. Even with high values, lack of motivation might impede them from pursuing a career in this industry. "Low motivation is accompanied by unreactive self-observation," (Bandura, 1991, p. 252). Low motivation may also cause low retention rates.

The third quadrant represented employees with low personal values but high motivations to be in the industry. Participating in appropriate training and coaching might enhance the personality by developing the values to be instilled in the employee. This conflicted with the

ICS owners' in this study. Their opinion is that, personality was the main component to joining the food and beverage industry. A lot of training and coaching was needed but there was no guarantee the employees would stay. The last quadrant represented employees who were unsuitable for the industry. Inappropriate values and low motivation will not be of any use to the industry. This type of potential employee should be eliminated in the early stages of recruiting.

The quadrant above helps in identifying suitable candidates to join a service organisation based on the values and motivation they have. It could also be a benchmark to progress current employees in demonstrating better performance within the organisation. The quadrant is useful in determining the level of employee commitment based on their values and motivation to work in a service organisation.

6.2.5 Section Summary

Almost every activity and task within an organisation relates strongly to the influence of internal culture. This appears relevant to the findings of this research that show the development of internal culture through internal operations and individuals involved. In summary, the fundamentals of internal organisational culture were interrelated and depended heavily on the values of the individuals within the organisation. Thus, it was essential to have individuals with the right personalities and values to fit the organisation's internal culture.

6.3 The relationship between brand identity building and internal organisational culture within the food and beverage industry

The process of building brand identity and the fundamentals of internal organisational culture have been discussed in depth based on findings of this research. In the following sections, the researcher will demonstrate the relationship between brand identity building and internal organisational culture, which was based mainly on the integration of findings from Sections 6.1 and 6.2. Earlier, the researcher discussed the relationship between the process of conception, adaptation and development in brand identity building and internal organisational culture; the researcher will now explain the process of adopting cultural traits to illuminate the whole process.

6.3.1 Integration: Learning the identity and culture

When discussing the ways in which internal culture and brand identity influence businesses, the food industry, or service industry in general, the process of integrating new ideas and routines was of great significance. Such integration is a deliberate, coordinated learning process. Through the process of integration with the existing environment, individuals learnt the routines and values of an existing organisational culture in an organisation.

This integration was the core process newly employed by this research, starting from the conception of brand identity, through to the fundamental creation of internal culture. It also played a powerful role in integrating both elements into an organisation. It was found in this research that individuals gained experience with the routines, practices and the work environment, conforming to what is already available in the outlet.

From the field research, it was evident that members of a coffee shop outlet were trained to have similar views of the business and ways of doing things. Employees were taught to offer a similar mode of service to their customers (the different approaches in guiding employees in ICSs were discussed earlier). The process of training, guiding and educating new members was a huge step in introducing them to the organisation's culture and getting them familiar with the brand of the organisation. The diversity of activities in the learning process found in the outlets, however, shared many similarities. These included continuous training and adjustment (familiarisation) with the complete brand identity concept created by the owner and also with the existing internal culture.

The integration process of learning the outlet's identity and culture allowed employees to identify themselves with the organisation, to see if they were compatible or not. This phase essentially forced individuals to assess their compatibility with the organisation. As a consequence of this progression, individuals decided to stay or leave.

Consequently, these individuals were also involved with the process of familiarisation with the practices and routines in the outlet and with its brand identity. When the employee or individual was familiar with the routines, the internal practices of the outlet and the brand identity, they began to adapt to the culture and the way things are done. This is where employees practised the routines of the outlet and became accustomed to those routines over

time. Take the beginning of internalisation of the culture, for example, Ben's practice of customer service in his outlet:

Friendly, smile, give this you know, a home, welcome... that are my principles. In any business that you do, someone who is coming from the door, who had a warm welcome, it is important. Let say, in any business, doesn't matter what kind of business, it is important. This is what I believe, it's my personal belief. But I do notice other people who don't. (Ben, ICS 03)

Thus, Ben and his team have routines and practices designed to create a welcoming, familiar and comfortable environment as central features of his business. These emphasised a smile, a greeting, remembering names and expressing the culture of the outlet. New employees learnt these practices as they adapted to the new culture. The integration process underpinned the learning and customisation process. Employees became familiar with the internal practices and the brand identity of the outlet as they identified with it.

6.3.2 Mapping the brand's identity

Brand mapping is a research-driven approach to understanding and improving a brand. This research has identified various factors influencing brand identity building and internal culture discussed previously in this chapter. Among the factors identified were brand distinctiveness and leadership of the owners. The relationship of these two items can be evaluated using Young and Rubicam's Brand Asset Valuator (BAV) (Kapferer, 2008), because the BAV assists in distinguishing brands and understanding the brand's life. The BAV also highlights how brands grow, decline and become irrelevant (Shantini, Bick and Abratt, 2006). The BAV model as shown in Figure 6.11 depicts "the stages in the cycle of brand development – each with its characteristic pillar patterns – in successive quadrants," (Keller, 2008, p. 394). It has been used by scholars in various research (Aaker, 1996; Keller and Lehmann, 2006; Schuiling and Kapferer, 2004).

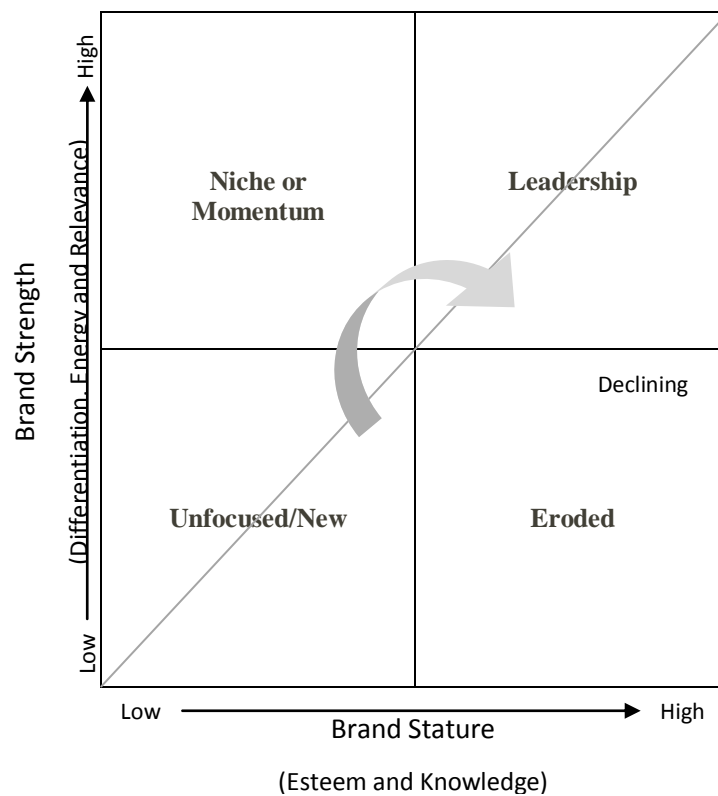


Figure 6.11 : The BAV model

The model is divided into two parts: 1) brand strength (vertical coordinates), where three key components were noted (differentiation, energy and relevance); and 2) brand stature (horizontal coordinates), where there are two key components (esteem and knowledge). The BAV model can be used to represent the circular life of a brand. A brand starts as unfocused and new. It gradually develops brand strength through differentiation (how it is different from others), energy (the brand's drive) and relevance (how it appeals to others). At this point the brand finds its niche, generates momentum and starts to emerge as a potential competitor. In the leadership quadrant (upper right), the brand experiences a high level of brand strength and brand stature, with increasing brand esteem and customers' knowledge about the brand. At this stage it is important to have strong leadership to ensure on-going brand strength. In the last quadrant (below, right) the brand begins to fade and, if no action is taken to sustain it, the brand may lose its niche and start to decline (erode).

Since the BAV model has a similar emphasis to this research (that is, focusing on the internal operations of the organisation), the researcher applied the findings from this research into the model in order to expand the use of the model. The cross analysis by Young and Rubican

(Keller, 2008) provided a model which offered brands a stronger presence and the possibility of becoming an active competitor in the industry. This cross analysis highlighted the significance of the differences in brand strength and the influence of leadership in developing internal culture.

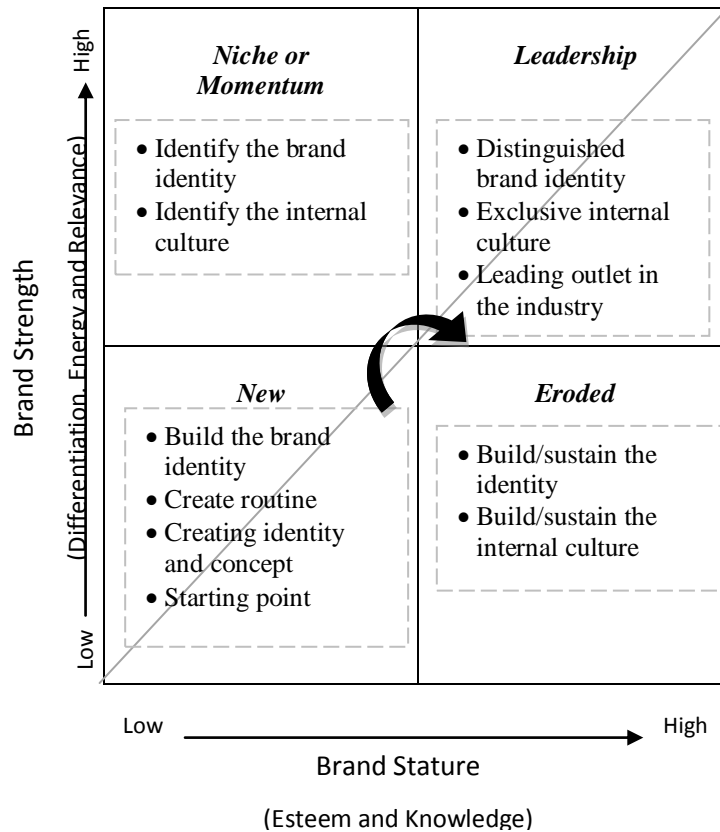


Figure 6.12 : Mapping the brand identity

Figure 6.12 illustrates the cross analysis, using findings from this research and based on the two criteria suggested by Young and Rubicam (Keller, 2008): brand strength and brand stature. The findings were plotted into the quadrants (Figure 6.13), representing the cycle of a brand, it will assist new and unfocused brands to have a resilient foundation in the industry. For a new brand entering the industry, brand strength and brand stature are low; thus, the brand needs to build its identity and concept at this phase. Next, when the brand is identified, nurtured into its niche and gaining momentum, the leader is required to sustain and maintain the brand growth. This can be done through distinguishing the brand identity, having an exclusive internal culture, and aspiring to be the leading brand or outlet in the industry. Leadership skills in sustaining and maintaining the brand position are critical to stop the

brand from losing its essence. (If that happened, the brand would need to start the cycle again by building its identity and concept.)

6.3.3 Route to a unique service organisation: 'A comfortable home'

The researcher adopted the metaphor approach, as described by more than one of the participants that their outlets strived to be as near as possible to “a comfortable home”.

Figure 6.15 demonstrated a cycle of progress towards a unique service organisation, with a route to building brand identity and internal organisational culture, as documented by this research. The figure below displayed only the core of the findings which were divided into three parts: brand identity, internal organisational culture and establishment of culture. However, this study has found that brand identity and organisational culture were not simple things. Figure 6.15 represented the collective themes and findings of this research. This picture of brand identity and internal organisational amalgamated Kapferer’s (1997) brand identity prism, Hofstede and Hofstede’s (2005) onion model, and the earlier conceptual model used in this research (refer to Chapter 4).

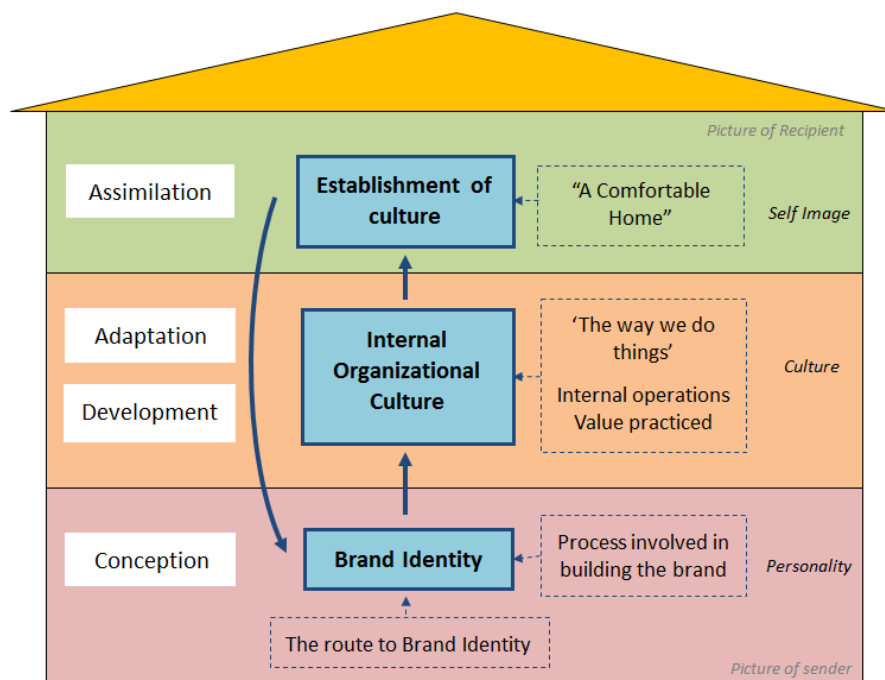


Figure 6.13 : Route to a unique service organisation

The 'house' presented in Figure 6.13 represents the internalisation process of building brand identity and internal culture. The model signified a three story building, incorporating three levels of building a unique outlet. The foundation of the building aligned with the conception phase of brand identity, during which a deeper understanding of the desired brand for the organisation was sought. At this stage it was essential to identify the key branding elements involved, as the brand's identity will represent the personality of the organisation. The first floor represented the process of developing and adapting to the internal culture of the organisation. In this phase, continuous internal practices and the way individuals performed their tasks were identified. At the second floor level, assimilation played an important role in establishing an internal culture. The continuous process of assimilation, according to the findings, gradually built identity and culture.

The whole process of conception, development, adaptation and assimilation was tied together through continuous learning. The processes were interrelated and appeared to occur concurrently. The learning process played a key role in the establishment of the internal culture of the organisation. The progression of this exercise could lead to attracting customers and, when customers conversed with other individuals, could also lead to the formation of a tribe (Godin, 2008). Customers may reflect on the image they hold about the organisation and connect their personal relationships with the organisation (Kapferer, 2008). This process did not end once the internal culture was established. Rather, the cycle needed to be revisited occasionally to ensure on-going understanding of the organisational brand identity and internal culture. It was likely that this process took on an automatic character, whereby it became, in essence, self-perpetuating. It was also likely to evolve as circumstances manifested their influence to business.

6.3.4 Section Summary

This section demonstrated the merging of two theories and applied the results to brand identity and internal culture in the food and beverage industry. It emphasised that these appeared to emerge, refine and perpetuate themselves through continuous learning and assimilation. The proposal of the model as a mechanism for understanding these phenomena has the potential to assist individuals in the food and beverage industry in particular and the service industry in general, in establishing and sustaining their position in this competitive

industry. In the next and final chapter, the researcher will summarise the findings of this research in a proposed conceptual framework (Figure 6.15).

Chapter 7: Conclusion

This thesis investigated how small business owners created a service brand and their efforts to continue the brand into the future. Several components of brand identity creation and internal organisational culture were identified from the research field. The research was carried out with owners of food and beverage outlets through the lens of brand identity theory and internal organisational culture theory. This chapter begins by returning to the motives of this research, as these shaped the nature and scope of the study. Following this, findings from this thesis will be clarified and synthesised into a coherent body of understanding. Aspects of practical and theoretical implications will be presented and finally, recommendations for further research will be made, keeping in mind the limitations of the current study. In addition, the research will be placed in the bigger marketing picture by relating the thesis to broader scholarly knowledge about internal branding and small businesses.

7.1 Restatement of the research background

The aim of this research and the proposed theoretical framework was to explore and more thoroughly understand the processes involved in building brand identity and the relationship of brand to the internal organisational culture. This research has also validated the integration of the current knowledge about brand identity and internal organisational culture and examined these concepts in a specific context. These aims have been facilitated by the construction of a conceptual model consisting of brand identity, internal organisational culture and consumers (Chapter 4, Section 4.6), concepts that were reflected through the conceptual model. These associations were explored through the lens of the owners' perceptions. While consumers were important in the business world, owners were equally important as creators of the brand and the organisation (Horan, et al., 2011; Ross and Harradine, 2011).

This research found that the process of building a unique brand identity and determining the fundamentals of internal culture involved numerous, focused activities by business owners. Owners generally understood that creating a brand, maintaining it, and presenting it consistently to the public required continual effort as well as finding and training people who

could routinely deliver the owner's vision of products and service to customers. Thus, the findings of this research have provided 1) insights into the nature of the creation and strengthening of brand identity; 2) identification of the fundamentals necessary for creation of internal organisational culture in service-focused organisations; and 3) assimilation of brand identity and internal organisational culture that was accomplished through a continuous learning process. As such, it appeared that building brand identity and practising internal organisational culture required controlling several processes to attain a unique service organisation. Specifically, it was found that creating and building brand identity must be done systematically and in stages, right from the “womb”. This process can be paralleled with the development of a living person. A person who has been instilled with an identity, values and culture right from early childhood is likely to grow with these fundamentals becoming stronger within him or herself over time. In the same manner, a brand with strong internal fundamentals developed into a unique brand and organisation, strengthening over time. While this process was in some respects modest, it did help to deliver distinctive outcomes. Owners and leaders should be able to drive their organisations towards their desired identity and aims and bring the organisation from its starting point ("womb") to perhaps an eminent brand identity.

The current study showed definite indications of the impact of leadership in the process of building brand identity and strengthening internal culture, a finding that was congruent with Davies' (2008) version of strong leadership. What is required was a much better understanding on the role of leadership (among the owners) in the process of brand identity building and its relationship to internal cultural practices in a service outlet. This research found that owners' leadership skills had a significant effect in moulding the brand into a desired concept.

Owners who participated in this research shared the insights, experiences and practices they believed distinguished their organisations. Their responses, together with other supporting data (observation, field notes and artefacts) were used as a basis for exploring and responding to the three research questions posed in this thesis.

7.1.1 **Research Question 1: What is the process of brand identity building in the food and beverage industry?**

This study indicated that the primary reason for building brand identity was to augment the identification process among customers of an organisation. Without an identity, a brand or an organisation was not likely to be seen as distinctive among competitors. There were processes that needed to be followed by the owners and members of the organisation in building their brand's identity. Five processes were identified by this research:

First, creating a **meaningful brand name** was essential in order to minimise confusion among consumers. Unique and meaningful brand names with consistent associations to the brand and organisation encouraged positive relationships with consumers. Brand names also created a "personality" for the organisation. This seemed to be especially so when they used clear and appealing names (such as *Pronto*, described in Section 6.1.1). ICS owners seemed to lack a fine appreciation for the impression a strong brand name made on consumers. This could be why they did not put much emphasis on creating the name for their brand. Clearly, leaders of organisations should place greater emphasis on determining their brand's name.

Second, one should design into his or her business a **distinctive “presentation of self”**, such that the business has characteristics that distinguish it from other, similar businesses. The process depended heavily on the owners' vision of and for the organisation. The vision could be achieved through detailed analysis (customer, competitor and self-analysis). Beyond analysis, elegance in artistic details, business intelligence in the leaders and creativity were components required to provide distinctiveness to the brand and its organisation. Cautious arrangements should also be made in developing a unique brand identity.

Third, the **engaging personality of the leader of a business was critical for fostering the distinctiveness necessary for brand building**. It was found in this research that the personality of the leaders greatly influenced the brand identity. Leadership skills played an important part in sustaining the organisation's wellbeing. Enthusiastic and passionate leaders had a stronger drive for managing their organisations. The owners' passion in creating, designing and managing the organisation strengthened the building of the brand identity.

Fourth, **the practice of "doing it myself"** was a consistent characteristic across the owners when managing their employees and organisations. The time spent in an outlet did not necessarily determine the efficiency of the management or their skill at managing their employees or organisation. Owners preferred to practise a "do it myself" attitude to show exemplary behaviour to their employees. Thus, if the leaders were doing a task (e.g., mopping the floor), the employees should be able to do it too.

The fifth, and the last identified component of building brand identity was **the introduction of a fresh concept to the market**. Introducing a fresh concept allowed the study participants to venture into new markets and attract new customers. Most of the owners had a basic creative concept for their outlet; however, they did not put effort into enhancing it, since the owners seemed not to consider it a major concern for their business. Among the components associated with the notion of a fresh concept were artistic intelligence and the exclusive design of the outlet.

The information above explains all five processes identified that aim to develop a fitting brand identity in an organisation. It is strongly recommended that leaders engage in these processes in the early stages of developing their organisations and also when working towards a distinctive brand identity.

7.1.2 **Research Question 2: What are the fundamentals that form the basis of internal organisational culture?**

This study found there were four fundamental considerations that formed the basis of internal organisational cultures in the food and beverage industry. These fundamentals contributed to the formation of the internal culture of the outlet.

The first of these was that **owners paid close attention to the routine operations** within the outlet. Routine operations are things that are done similarly and regularly every day (e.g., a daily task such as filling salt and pepper shakers or writing daily specials on a chalkboard). These practices contributed to building and maintaining a culture by providing the organisations' rituals.

The second fundamental was **internal marketing** and was strongly related to developing new organisational cultures. This began with the recruitment of employees and continued with

reinforcement of involvement with the organisation and its aims and activities; it also emphasised motivation. Together, these were fundamental to establishing and perpetuating an internal organisational culture. Internal marketing encouraged employees to deliver high service quality to customers and at the same time this fulfilled the objectives of the organisation.

Values were the third fundamental identified as fundamental for creating and fostering internal culture and thus brand identity. Values exhibited by these businesses were further grouped into three categories:

- a) Values were identified as critical for recruitment (for example, honesty, reliability). In order to fit with the existing team in the organisation, attention should be given during the recruitment process to find applicants with compatible values, those indicating a suitable candidate for employment;
- b) Values were central to providing excellent customer service, which was expressed through interaction with customers;
- c) Known and durable values were important for survival in the industry. To survive and stay ahead, individuals should be aware of the values they act by in order to ensure long term retention and success of the business.

The fourth fundamental is the nature of the relationship between **values and motivation** for members of the organisation. Being able to assess whether job applicants hold values that are compatible with the organisation's, and to have some indication that they are motivated to fit into the staff team are necessities. Thus, being able to recruit, train and retain employees, and to enhance their motivation to perform, is critical. Staff that are motivated and share the organisation's values are likely to develop higher levels of employee commitment to the organisation.

7.1.3 **Research Question 3: How are internal organisational culture and brand identity building related?**

The relationship between brand identity building and internal organisational culture was demonstrated in the framework derived from this research and represented in Figure 7.1 below. The "house" showed how each element related to the others. The whole progression was bound up **through learning process**, which ensured involvement from every individual

in the organisation. This process included the personal values practised in the outlet (as described more fully above). There are four stages in carrying out this process: conception, development, adaptation and assimilation. Clearly, these processes were interrelated and could also occur concurrently. This project has shown that the constant learning process played a central role in the establishment of the internal culture of the organisation and hence had a powerful impact on brand identity.

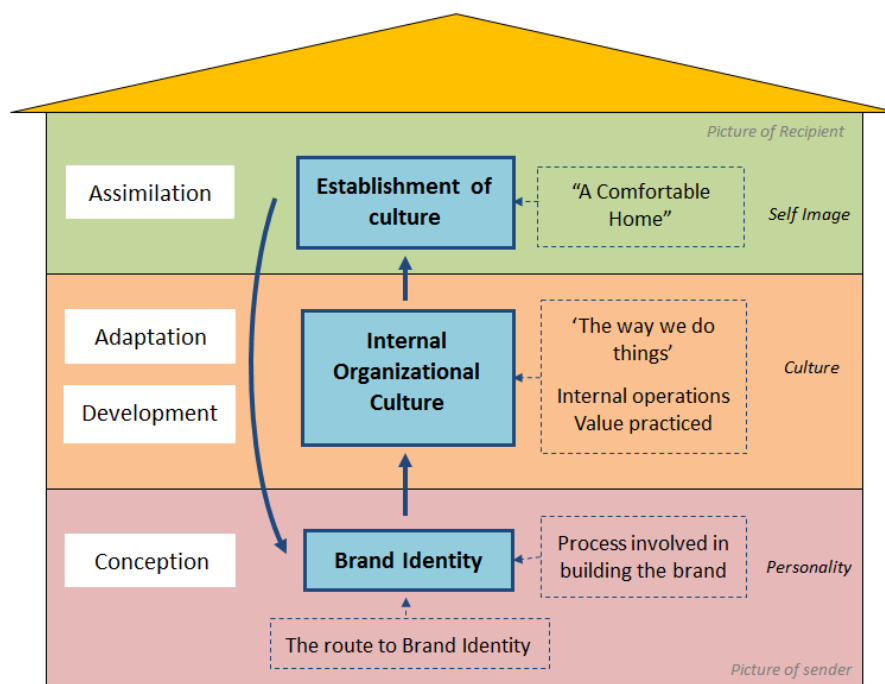


Figure 7.1 : Route to a unique service organisation

The qualitative research process enabled the researcher to establish significant links between Research Questions 1 and 2. As a result, it was concluded that the integration of brand identity and internal culture contributed strongly to the personality of an outlet as it was perceived from the outside. The integration of brand elements, rituals and personal values played an important role in creating a unique service organisation and enhanced the likelihood of the, consequent formation of a consumer tribe. This finding answered de Chernatony's (1999, p. 73) challenge to organisations to consider how they communicate their newly established brand identity to the potential customers. While de Chernatony suggested the use of integrated marketing communications (IMC), this study recognised that brand identity can also be communicated to customers through a strong internal culture.

Figure 7.1 illustrates the progression of tribe formation that can grow from the experience and evaluation of customers.

The owners were clear in their interviews that they relied on their own experiences as customers elsewhere and what they saw in their own customers to decide on what they thought would best contribute to their brand identity. Because these perceptions of customer behaviour were in a sense outside the organisation, they were placed outside the "house" in the model. The three storey house thus demonstrated the processes involved during the creation of a unique service organisation, which began in the conception phase with owners choosing an appropriate brand identity that would epitomise the personality of the organisation or brand. This was followed by the development and adaptation process of business policies and practices. In this phase owners and employees became accustomed to the developing internal practices in the organisation. At the second floor level (top level), the assimilation phase played an important role in establishing the internal culture and the concept selected. The continuous process of assimilation gradually built, improved and sustained the internal culture and resulted in a recognisable and durable identity for the organisation and brand.

The learning process played a fundamental role in the establishment and maintenance of the identity and internal culture of the organisation. The processes of conception, development, adaptation and assimilation were interrelated and may occur concurrently. The continual progression of this exercise could lead to attracting customers, which might engender loyalty to these businesses. This in turn would lead to the formation of tribes, according to their preferences. The house model also proposed that the cycle (conception, development, assimilation and adaptation) recognised the need to occasionally revisit the various components of brand identity and organisational culture in order to sustain or improve the identity and established practices within the organisation.

7.2 Implications and lessons learned

This research demonstrated that the need for having a robust identity of their outlet may not appear to be strongly relevant to the participants. Consequently, participants who were also owners of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) often appeared to have difficulties in

crystallising their brand identity and internal culture, as suggested by (Powell & Ennis, 2007). This could be due to the bundled responsibilities of SMEs owners, while in large business the responsibilities are distributed among departments (Abimbola & Vallaster, 2007). As a result of this, participants created brands that reflect his or her personality characteristics in the progress of the outlet development (Section 6.13). Shaping the brand and incorporating distinctive activities within the outlet adds to brand building, leading to a stronger brand and better reputation. Thus, this study presented a more holistic proposal for the growth and sustenance of small businesses, theoretically and practically.

The implications from this study can be divided into two parts: 1) theoretical and pedagogical; and 2) practical. This study offered multiple implications for each of these categories.

7.2.1 Theoretical and pedagogical contributions

This research explored management perspectives on internal operations and the resulting expectations of managers on both employees and customers. The findings added to the body of knowledge related to brand identity and internal organisational culture by documenting how these emerged in the course of business creation from original concept to an established, successful business. The findings also provided a point of reference for the food and beverage industry, since the context of this research was this industry.

The findings of this study will assist organisations in building their own identity and devising and growing their internal culture, as summarised by the proposed model. Klijn and Tomic (2010, p. 337) suggested that research on how to transform creative ideas efficiently into innovative outcomes was vital for organisations that hoped to keep up with their rapidly changing environment. This research has responded to this challenge by developing a model that presented a unique route for service organisation development. This model was built on the basis of in-depth interviews and detailed observations of successful businesses. It has provided insights that will be useful when organisations as brands are building their own identity and creating a concept for their organisation. The amalgamation of these four phases - conception, development, assimilation and adaptation - can enhance the efforts of organisations to create brands with unique identities and to instil in employees a unique and

durable orientation toward the business and its customers. The following sections identified further theoretical contributions to the fundamental theories used in this research.

Kapferer's brand identity prism

This study emphasised the role of culture and its contribution to the internalisation component of the brand identity prism. The integration of routine operations, internal marketing, organisational values and the continuous process of learning and practicing strengthened the internal culture of the outlet and contributed to building brand identity. It was clear that the leader of the organisation played an important role in ensuring these processes were in place. Therefore, the personality and values embraced by the leader and adopted by every individual in the organisation needed to be aligned and coherent, in order to achieve the desired self-image and to mould the brand identity of the organisation.

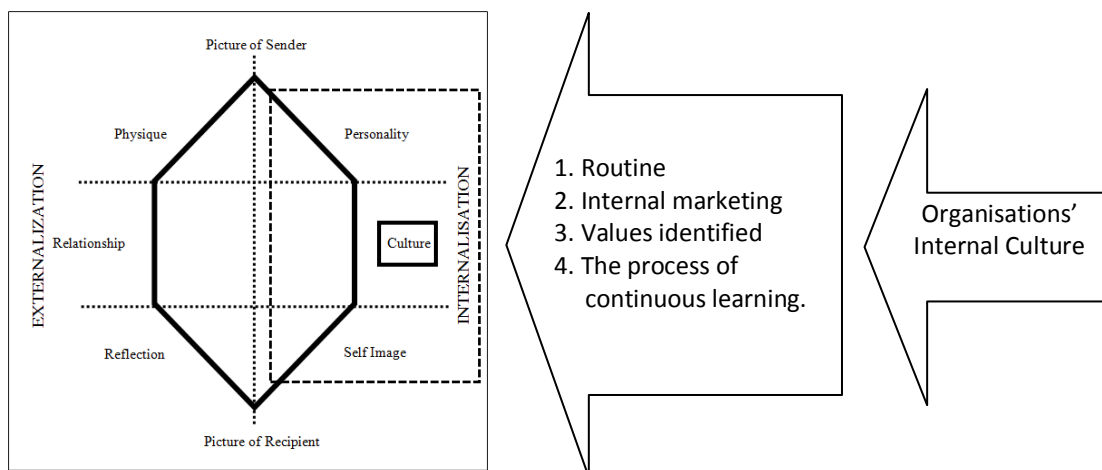


Figure 7.2 : Brand identity prism: added details

Kapferer (2008) argued that organisational culture was a set of values feeding the brand inspiration. However, he did not expand on the meaning of values. In this study, the researcher explored the concept of values and broadened the dimensions emphasised by Kapferer in depth, especially as they applied in the food and beverage industry. The values identified and discussed in Section 6.2.3 are likely to be applicable in other service organisations.

Hofstede's Onion Model

Hofstede's Onion Model was utilised in this research to provide guidance for understanding the elements of culture existing in an organisation. The findings from this research have demonstrated the link from Hofstede's explanation of culture to the building of brand identity (Figure 7.3). To address Research Question 2, the researcher explained that rituals, symbols and heroes, with the addition of a meaningful brand name and distinctive concepts, may contribute to building a unique brand identity.

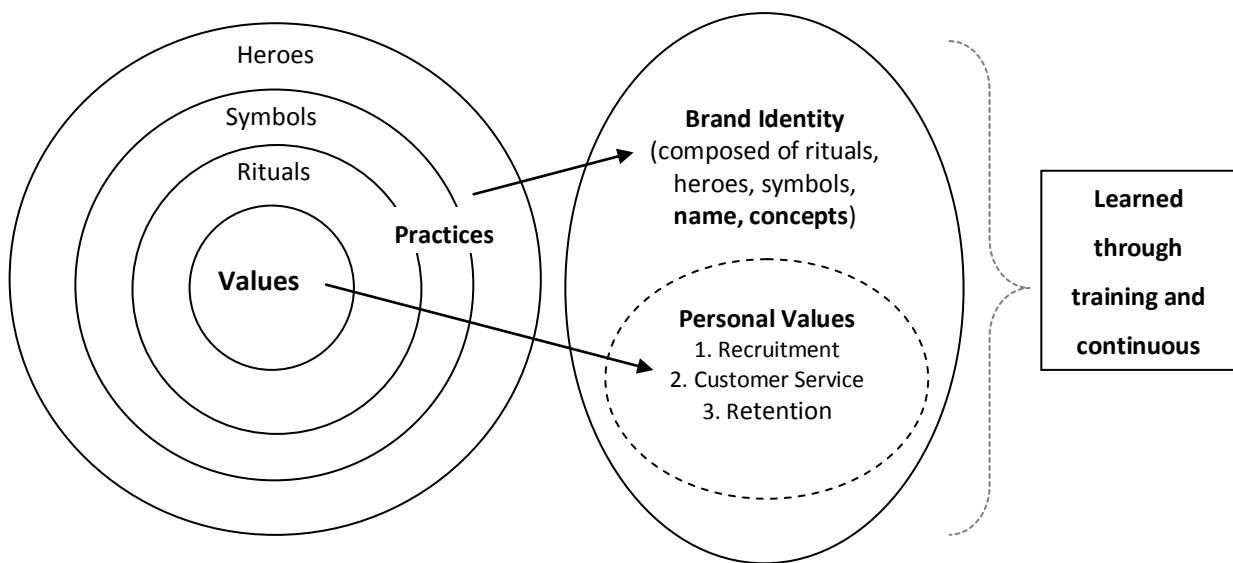


Figure 7.3 : Hofstede's Onion Model: added element

The identification and addition of personal values suggested by this research broadened the scope of values, as incorporated above in Hofstede's Onion Model. Recognising the personal values component will augment the organisation's vision and enlighten its mission, assisting it in achieving the desired objectives. The early identification of personal values among potential employees in the recruitment phase may assist the leader and the organisation in choosing the most appropriate candidates to fit their employee team. The augmented onion model provided deeper levels of meaning with regard to values in the service industry and has useful implications for employers when hiring staff.

An important contribution of this thesis is the development of theory which accounts for brand identity building and internal culture of SMEs. Keller (2013) stated that most small business find it challenging to build their brand due to inadequate resources. Having noted that, there are many small entrepreneurs who have built large scale international brands with presumably insufficient resources. The toy brand LEGO is one example. Founded in 1932 by Ole Kirk Kristiansen, it was started in a small carpenter's workshop (Hatch & Schultz, 2010). According to Hatch and Schultz (2010), LEGO relied on a value-driven management style and inclination to be transparent right from the start of their brand creation process. This demonstrates the significance of having shared internal culture with members of the organisation, even for a small business. Keller (2013) also emphasised the importance of strong and unique brands in order to provide enough motivation for consumers to seek them.

Bresciani and Eppler (2010) argued that SMEs must be able to build their own brands with their own approach to establishing identity and internal structures, sustaining the brand, and making full use of their resources. The theoretical contributions from the current research provide a more detailed framework for SMEs to overcome potential limitations in creating a unique and competitive brand. The utilisation of the now enhanced brand identity prism and onion model from this research may add a more holistic perspective to SMEs' literature on brand identity building. It is important for SME leaders to have a clear vision of their brand in order to have a structure for achieving a unique brand - these enhanced perspectives may contribute to achieving this.

Balmer and Greyser (2002) depict four other types of identities found in an organisation (refer to Section 4.3): actual identity, communication identity, conceived identity, and desired identity. These four interrelated identities are included in the process of building the overall brand identity and in identifying the fundamentals of the organisation's internal culture (Sections 6.2 and 6.3). The ability to assimilate these four identities into a holistic brand identity may strengthen the message to the brand's customers, besides adding to the distinctiveness of the brand itself.

A good branding exercise designed to project brand identity will likely go beyond a brand name and its internal culture. Thus, as discussed above, both theoretical contributions that

have been made from this research are aligned and provide additional theoretical insights in contribution to the SMEs literature.

7.2.2 Practical contributions

The proposed framework can be applied to small businesses beyond the humble coffee house. Most small sized food and beverage businesses might also utilise the proposed house model. While the current study focused on the food and beverage outlet, it is also likely to be applicable to other SMEs; small businesses with individual owners, small family businesses, or start-up businesses such as beauty salons, organic products shops, florists or pet shops. The emphasis on small scale business is primarily to offer support for building a distinctive and coherent brand and to strengthen the brand creator's business position in their respective competitive market. This study has identified features of brand identity and internal organisational culture that can support small business owners in establishing their outlet and to have a competitive edge in order to be a successful active player in their business segment. The recommendations from this research will be helpful in developing and sustaining branded small business outlets with their own unique identity.

The motive for applying the house model to small but not to larger ones is that larger businesses are already developed and are presumably well-managed (i.e. Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Spence & Essoussi, 2010). However, Aaker (2004) later stated the importance of brands being different, differentiating themselves from others:

Too many corporate brands have no value proposition. They are simply large, stable firms that can be trusted to deliver adequate products and services, but with no point of distinction and sometimes with a hint of being bureaucratic and ponderous. (Aaker, 2004, p. 14)

While it is commonly assumed that most small businesses lack resources (such as capabilities and market power) in competing head to head with larger businesses (Abdul-Nour, Drolet, & Lambert, 1999; Knight, 2000; Stockdale & Standing, 2004), it is worthy to note that small businesses:

hold a number of significant advantages over large companies when developing new products. These include a shorter decision-making process due to fewer layers of management, greater functional integration, less resistance to change and a more innovation friendly atmosphere (Nicholas, Ledwith, & Perks, 2011, p. 229).

Therefore, the current study provides a potential mechanism for adding a competitive edge for small scale businesses operations via recognising the importance of emphasising and strengthening brand identity and internal culture. The flexible structure, high emphases on innovation and creativity, and a straightforward monitoring system are among the advantages for small businesses pushing their boundaries and in creating and then expanding their business.

The house model presented earlier provides a useful starting point for owners and managers when planning their food and beverage outlet details. The model could be instrumental in establishing the internal culture in any outlet or in "updating" the culture to better cope with changes in the industry. Internal culture was an essential component of a unique organisation because it provided the organisation with a strong identity, giving it a sense and understanding of itself. A strong internal culture is enriched and maintained by employees with a high level of commitment to the organisation. Thus, a strong internal culture aligned with values important to the organisation provided a strong foundation for building consistent brand identity and enhancing communication with customers.

Establishing the internal culture in a food and beverage outlet (or in any service industry outlet) follows a detailed process of three phases (Figure 7.1). Smaller businesses were fortunate in that with smaller numbers of employees, the creation of an organisational culture and the practices that flowed from it can be managed more directly by the business owner(s). Issues stemming from the development of subcultures within the organisation are likely to be minimal, given that "subcultures are always likely to exist in large organisation[s]" (de Chernatony and Cottam, 2008, p. 20).

7.3 Study limitations

Several limitations constrained this research. The first related to the issue of representation and, therefore, generalisability. This research was conducted with coffee shop outlets in the city of Christchurch, New Zealand. Since only 19 participants provided data for the study, it is unlikely that either these businesses or this environment were representative of the larger New Zealand context. Further, the findings of the study were largely representative of western rather than global practices in the food and beverage industry. This also compromised the application of the results to other environments. Replication of the study outside the current context is likely to result in different findings.

A second limitation involved the difficulty of recruiting participants for this research. Most of the participants approached initially declined to contribute because of work commitments, as their full attention was required when the outlet was operating. This constrained the time participants were able to be interviewed. With fewer demands on their time, participants might have provided a richer volume of data for analysis, leading to insights that were unable to be revealed owing to time constraints. Based on these limitations, the next section provides suggestions for future research in relation to the current study.

7.4 Suggestions for future research

Further qualitative research based on the brand identity constructs used here might involve a strategic selection of countries and a focus on brand building, brand identity and internal organisational culture. Since this research was carried out in a western country, future research could explore the same research questions in Asian countries. It would also be interesting to consider an "Old World versus New World" comparison. In any context, it would be especially useful to focus on food and beverage outlets that have yet to develop their unique identities. By identifying the outlets in advance, the researcher could persuade the owners of the advantages that could accrue from participating in the research, thus encouraging participation.

Future studies might also explore consumer perceptions regarding their emotional involvement with a certain outlet(s) and examine the degree to which brand identity mediates their involvement. It would be particularly enlightening to record customers' perspectives on

this issue. Apart from customers' perspectives, further research on consumer tribes would likely offer stimulating findings to complement the current research. Combining the concepts of consumer tribes and loyalty concerns about a brand and focusing on the consumer side would be an interesting approach to further this study.

Another possible research path would be to explore the absence of recognition of dietary requirements in the food and beverage industry. Only a small number of participants in this research labelled dishes on their menu as suitable for vegetarians or showed any sensitivity to religious-related dietary requirements. In future research it would be interesting to explore how vegetarian, halal (Islamic regulations for foods) and kosher products brand themselves, based on dietary regulations, by using the proposed conceptual model introduced in this research. The lack of research on special or uncommon dietary requirements in the food and beverage industry indicates a need for further work in this field. Vegetarian, halal and kosher based food and beverage outlets should be made apparent to the public by clear dietary certification, since the targeted consumers for these products are global citizens and their numbers are considerable.

There is more study needed with regard to understanding brand identity and the role it plays in setting an organisational culture in motion and the eventual success or failure of a business. The researcher hopes that the insights from this study will help to guide future researchers and organisational professionals who strive to create effective and enduring organisations.

Reference

- Aaker, D. A. (1991). *Managing brand equity*. New York, Free Press.
- Aaker, D. A. (1992). Managing the Most Important Asset: Brand Equity. *Planning Review*, 20(5), 56.
- Aaker, D. A. (1996). *Building Strong Brands*. New York, Free Press.
- Aaker, D. A. (1996). Measuring brand equity across products and markets. *California Management Review*, 38(3), 103.
- Aaker, D. A. (2004). Leveraging the corporate brand. *California management review*, 46(3), 6-18.
- Aaker, D. A., & Joachimsthaler, E. (2000). The brand relationship spectrum. *California management review*, 42(4), 8-23.
- Aaker, D. A., and Joachimsthaler, E. (2000). *Brand leadership*. New York, Free Press.
- Aaker, J. L. (1997). Dimension of Brand Personality. *Journal of Marketing Research*, XXXIV(August), 347-456.
- Abdul-Nour, G., Drolet, J., & Lambert, S. (1999). Mixed production, flexibility and SME. *Computers & industrial engineering*, 37(1), 429-432.
- Abimbola, T., & Vallaster, C. (2007). Brand, organisational identity and reputation in SMEs: an overview. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 10(4), 341-348.
- Agafonoff, N. (2006). Adapting ethnographic research methods to ad hoc commercial market research. *Qualitative Market Research*, 9(2), 115-125.
- Ahmed, Z., Shields, F., White, R., and Wilbert, J. (2010). Managerial communication: the link between frontline leadership and organisational performance. *Journal of Organisational Culture, Communications and Conflict*, 14(1), 15.
- Alas, R., Ennulo, J., and Törnpuu, L. (2006). Managerial Values in the Institutional Context. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 65(3), 269-278.
- Albert, N., Merunka, D., and Valette-Florence, P. (2008). When consumers love their brands: Exploring the concept and its dimensions. *Journal of Business Research*, 61(10), 1062-1075.
- Alkailani, M., Azzam, I. A., and Athamneh, A. B. (2012). Replicating Hofstede in Jordan: Ungeneralized, Reevaluating the Jordanian Culture. *International Business Research*, 5(4), 71-80.
- Alonso, A. D., and O'Neill, M. A. (2011). What Defines the "Ideal" Hospitality Employee? A College Town Case. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, 12(1), 73-93.
- Alvesson, M., and Deetz, S. (2000). *Doing critical management research*. London, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Ambler, T. (2002). Comment: Customer lifetime values -- credible, or utterly incredible? *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, 10(3), 2.
- Ambler, T., Bhattacharya, C. B., Edell, J., Keller, K. L., Lemon, K. N., and Mittal, V. (2002). Relating brand and customer perspectives on marketing management. *Journal of Service Research : JSR*, 5(1), 13.
- Amine, A. (1998). Consumers' true brand loyalty: the central role of commitment. *Journal of strategic marketing*, 6(4), 305-319.
- Andriopoulos, C., and Gotsi, M. (2001). 'Living' the corporate identity: Case studies from the creative industry. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 4(2), 144-154.
- Angelmar, R., Angelmar, S., and Kane, L. (2007). Building strong condition brands. *Journal of medical Marketing: Devide, Diagnostic and Pharmaceutical Marketing*, 7 (4), 341-351.
- Ardichvili, A. (2001). Leadership styles and work related values of managers and employees of manufacturing enterprises in post communist countries. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 12(4), 363-383.
- Ataman, B., and Ulengin, B. (2003). A note on the effect of brand image on sales. *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 12(4/5), 237.

- Audhesh, K. P., Nancy, S., and Gopala, G. (2007). The effects of obtaining one's preferred service brand on consumer satisfaction and brand loyalty. *The Journal of Services Marketing*, 21(2), 75.
- Auerbach, C. F., and Silverstein, L. B. (2003). *Qualitative Data: An Introduction to Coding and Analysis*. New York, New York University Press.
- Aurand, T. W., Gorchels, L., and Bishop, T. R. (2005). Human resource management's role in internal branding: an opportunity for cross-functional brand message synergy. *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 14(2/3), 163-169.
- Australia, T. R. (2008). *Tourism Business User Guide*. Belconnen. Retrieved from http://www.ret.gov.au/tourism/Documents/tra/local%20government%20area%20profiles/Tourism%20Businesses%20User_guide_FINAL.pdf
- Auty, S. (1992). Consumer Choice and Segmentation in the Restaurant Industry. *The Service Industries Journal*, 12(3), 324-324.
- Azoulay, A., & Kapferer, J.-N. (2003). Do brand personality scales really measure brand personality? *The Journal of Brand Management*, 11(2), 143-155.
- Azoulay, A., and Kapferer, J. N. (2003). Do brand personality scales really measure brand personality? *Journal of Brand Management*, 11, 143-156.
- Babbie, E. (2004). *The practice of social research* (10th ed.). Belmont, Wadsworth/Thomson.
- Balmer, J. M. T. (2008). Identity based views of the corporation: Insights from corporate identity, organisational identity, social identity, visual identity, corporate brand identity and corporate image. *European Journal of Marketing*, 42(9/10), 879-906.
- Balmer, J. M. T., and Greyser, S. A. (2002). Managing the multiple identities of the corporation. *California management review*, 44(3), 72-86.
- Balmer, J. M. T., & Greyser, S. A. (2006). Corporate marketing: integrating corporate identity, corporate branding, corporate communications, corporate image and corporate reputation. *European Journal of Marketing*, 40(7/8), 730-741.
- Bandura, A. (1991). Social cognitive theory of self-regulation. *Organisational behavior and human decision processes*, 50(2), 248-287.
- Banerjee, S. (2008). Strategic Brand-Culture Fit: A conceptual framework for brand management. *Journal of Brand Management*, 15(5), 312.
- Bannock, G., Davis, E., Trott, P., and Uncles, M. (2002). *The New Penguin Dictionary of Business*. London, Penguin Books.
- Barlow, J., and Stewart, P. (2004). *Branded Customer Services: The New Competitive Edge*. San Francisco, Berret Koehler Publishers.
- Barnlund, D., and Mortensen, C. D. (1973). *Basic Readings in Communication Theory*. London, HarperCollins.
- Barrow, S., and Mosley, R. (2005). *The Employer Brand*. Chichester: Palgrave Macmillan Ltd.
- Bech-Larsen, T., Esbjerg, L., Grunert, K. G., Juhl, H. J., and Brunsø, K. (2007). The Supermalt identity: how Brixton-based Afro-Caribbean consumers construct a Danish malt beer brand as one of their own. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 16(1), 5-15.
- Bellou, V. (2007). Achieving long-term customer satisfaction through organisational culture: Evidence from the health care sector. *Managing Service Quality*, 17(5), 510-522.
- Berry, L. L., Hensel, J. S., and Burke, M. C. (1976). Improving retailer capability for effective consumerism response. *Journal of Retailing*, 52(3), 3-14.
- Berry, L. L., Carbone, L. P., and Haeckel, S. H. (2002). Managing the total customer experience. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 43(3), 85-89.
- Bhaskaran, S., and Sukumaran, N. (2007). National culture, business culture and management practices: consequential relationships? *Cross Cultural Management*, 14(1), 54-67.
- Bhattacharya, C. B., Rao, H., and Glynn, M. A. (1995). Understanding the bond of identification: An investigation of its correlates among art museum members. *The Journal of Marketing*, 46-57.
- Biszants, S. (2005). Branding is Your People, Product Distribution and Your Culture. *PRIMEDIA Business Magazine and Media, Inc.*

- Bitner, M. J. (1990). Evaluating service encounters: the effects of physical surroundings and employee responses. *The Journal of Marketing*, 54(2), 69-82.
- Bitner, M. J. (1992). Servicescapes: the impact of physical surroundings on customers and employees. *The Journal of Marketing*, 56(2), 57-71.
- Bitner, M. J. (1995). Building service relationships: it's all about promises. *Journal of the Academy of marketing science*, 23(4), 246-251.
- Blois, K. (2000). *The Oxford Textbook of Marketing*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Blumer, H. (1969). *Symbolic Interactionism: Perspective and Method*. London, University of California Press.
- Boatwright, P., Cagan, J., Kapur, D., and Saltiel, A. (2009). A step-by-step process to build valued brands. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 18(1), 38-49.
- Borden, N. H. (1964). The concept of the marketing mix. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 4(2), 2-7.
- Bowen, G. A. (2008). Naturalistic inquiry and the saturation concept: a research note. *Qualitative Research*, 8(1), 137-152.
- Bowen, J. (1990). Development of a taxonomy of services to gain strategic marketing insights. *Journal of the Academy of marketing science*, 18(1), 43-49.
- Bresciani, S., & Eppler, M. J. (2010). Brand new ventures? Insights on start-ups' branding practices. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 19(5), 356-366.
- Britannica, T. N. E., and P. W. Goetz. (1990). *Cafe*. Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc.
- Brotherton, B. (2006). Some thoughts on a general theory of hospitality. *Tourism Today* *Tourism Today*.
- Brownlie, D., and Spender, J. C. (1995). Managerial judgement in strategic marketing:: some preliminary thoughts. *Management Decision*, 33(6), 39-50.
- Brownsell, A. (2009). Personality flaws. *Marketing*, 14-14. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/214944633?accountid=27890>
- Bryman, A., and Hardy, M. A. (2009). *Handbook of data analysis*. New Delhi, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Buchbinder, E. (2011). Beyond Checking Experiences of the Validation Interview. *Qualitative Social Work*, 10(1), 106-122.
- Burdett, J. D. (1998). Beyond values - exploring the twenty-first century organisation. *The Journal of Management Development*, 17(1), 27-27-43.
- Burman, C. and Zeplin, S. (2005). Building brand commitment: A behavioural approach to internal brand management. 12, 279.
- Burman, C., and Zeplin, S. (2005). Building brand commitment: a behavioural approach to internal brand management. *Journal of Brand Management*, 12(4), 279-300.
- Burmann, C., Hegner, S., and Riley, N. (2009). Towards an identity-based branding. *Marketing Theory*, 9(1), 113-118.
- Butt, H. S., and Murtaza, M. (2011). Measuring Customer Satisfaction wrt Restaurant Industry in Bahawalpur. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 3(5), 54-64.
- Cappelli, P., and Hamori, M. (2008). Are franchise bad employees? *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 61(2), 147-162.
- Carroll, M., Marchington, M., Earnshaw, J., and Taylor, S. (1999). Recruitment in small firms Processes, methods and problems. *Employee Relations*, 21(3), 236-250.
- Cetron, M. J., DeMicco, F. J., and Williams, J. A. (1996). Restaurant Renaissance: Current and Future Trends In Food Service. *Futurist*, 30, 8-13.
- Chan, P. S., and Justis, R. T. (1990). Franchise Management in East Asia. *Academy of Management Executive*, 4(2), 75-85.
- Chandler, J., and Owen, M. (2002). *Developing brands with qualitative market research*. London, Sage Publications Ltd..
- Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. London, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Chirico, F., and Nordqvist, M. (2010). Dynamic capabilities and trans-generational value creation in family firms: The role of organisational culture. *International Small Business Journal*, 28(5), 487-504.

- Chuang, A., and Kleiner, B. H. (2003). New developments concerning wages and hours in the restaurant industry. *Management Research News*, 26(2/3/4), 148-154.
- Clifton, R., Simmons, J., and Ahmad, S. (2004). *Brands and branding*. Canda, Bloomberg Press.
- Coffey, A., and Atkinson, P. (1996). *Making sense of qualitative data: Complementary research strategies*. Thousand Oaks, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Collier, J., and Collier, M. (1986). *Visual anthropology: Photography as a research method*: University of New Mexico Press.
- Collins, J. C., and Porras, J. I. (1994). *Built to last: Successful habits of visionary companies*. New York, Harper Collins.
- Coser, L. A., and Merton, R. K. (1971). *Masters of sociological thought: Ideas in historical and social context*: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich New York.
- Cova, B., Kozinets, R. V., Kozinets, R., and Shankar, A. (2007). *Consumer tribes*. Oxford, Butterworth Heinemann.
- Covey, S. (1989). *The seven habits of highly successful people*. New York City: Simon and Schuster.
- Craig, C. S., and Douglas, S. P. (2006). Beyond national culture: implications of cultural dynamics for consumer research. *International Marketing Review*, 23(3), 322-342.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research Design*. California, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Crouch, M., & McKenzie, H. (2006). The logic of small samples in interview-based qualitative research. *Social science information*, 45(4), 483-499.
- Dahlvig, A., Kling, K., and Goteman, I. (2003). IKEA CEO Anders Dahlvig on International Growth and IKEA's Unique Corporate Culture and Brand Identity. *The Academy of Management Executive* (1993-2005), 17(1), 31-37.
- Data collection and analysis. London: Sage
- Davies, G. (2008). Employer branding and its influence on managers. *European Journal of Marketing*, 42(5/6), 667-667-681.
- Davis, J. A. (2010). *Competitive Success, How Branding Adds Value*. Glasgow, Wiley.
- Davis, J. C. (2007). A Conceptual View of Branding For Services. *Innovative Marketing*, 3(1), 7.
- de Chernatony, L. (1999). Brand management through narrowing the gap between brand identity and brand reputation. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15(1), 157-179.
- de Chernatony, L. (2001). A model for strategically building brands. *Journal of Brand Management*, 9(1), 32.
- de Chernatony, L., and Cottam, S. (2008). Interactions between organisational cultures and corporate brands. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 17(1), 13-24.
- de Chernatony, L., and Francesca Dall'Olmo, R. (1998). Modelling the components of the brand. *European Journal of Marketing*, 32(11/12), 1074.
- de Chernatony, L., and Harris, F. (2000). Developing corporate brands through considering internal and external stakeholders. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 3(3), 268-274.
- de Chernatony, L., and Riley, F. D. O. (1998). Modelling the components of the brand. *European Journal of Marketing*, 32(11/12), 1074.
- de Chernatony, L., and Riley, F. D. O. (1998). Modelling the components of the brand. *European Journal of Marketing*, 32(11/12), 1074-1090.
- de Chernatony, L., and Segal-Horn, S. (2003). The criteria for successful services brands. *European Journal of Marketing*, 37(7/8), 1095.
- de Chernatony. (1999). Brand management through narrowing the gap between brand identity and brand reputation. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15(1), 157-179.
- Deci, E. L. (1972). The effects of contingent and noncontingent rewards and controls on intrinsic motivation. *Organisational Behavior and Human Performance*, 8(2), 217-229.
- Deetz, S., and Alvesson, M. (2000). *Doing critical management research*. London: Sage Publications Limited.
- Denison, D., Lief, C., and Ward, J. L. (2004). Culture in family-owned enterprises: Recognizing and leveraging unique strengths. *Family Business Review*, 17(1), 61.
- Denzin, N. K., and Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). *Handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

- Desai, P. (2002). *Methods beyond interviewing in qualitative market research*. London, Sage Publications Ltd..
- Dickie, V. A. (2003). Data analysis in qualitative research: A plea for sharing the magic and the effort. *The American journal of occupational therapy*, 57(1), 49.
- Dimitriadis, S., and Stevens, E. (2008). Integrated customer relationship management for service activities: an internal/external gap model. *Managing Service Quality*, 18(5), 496-511.
- DiPietro, R. B., Parsa, H. G., and Gregory, A. (2011). Restaurant QSC inspections and financial performance: an empirical investigation. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 23(7), 982-999.
- Drake, S. M., Gulman, M. J., and Roberts, S. M. (2005). *Light their fire: using internal marketing to ignite employee performance and wow your customers*. Chicago, Kaplan Publishing.
- Duckett, B. (2008). Business format franchising: a strategic option for business growth- at home and abroad. *Strategic Direction*, 24(2), 3-4.
- Duncan, T., and Moriarty, S. E. (1998). A communication-based marketing model for managing relationships. *The Journal of Marketing*, 62(2), 1-13.
- Durocher, J. F. (1990). Beat the training challenge with interactive videodiscs. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 31(1), 46-51.
- Eisingerich, A. B., and Bell, S. J. (2007). Maintaining customer relationships in high credence services. *The Journal of Services Marketing*, 21(4), 253-262.
- Elliot, G., Rundle-Thiele, S., and Waller, D. (2010). *Marketing*. Queensland, John Wiley and Sons Australia.
- Ellwood, I. (2002). *Essential Brand Book: Over 100 techniques to increase brand value* (2nd ed.). Milford, CT, Kogan Page, Ltd.
- Emily, B. (2003). A study of entrepreneurial brand building in the manufacturing sector in the UK. *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 12(2/3), 79.
- Engel, J. F., Blackwell, R. D., and Miniard, P. W. (1993). *Consumer Behavior*. Fort Worth, Dryden Press.
- English, W. (1996). Restaurant attrition: a longitudinal analysis of restaurant failures. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 8(2), 17-20.
- Esterberg, K. G. (2002). *Qualitative Methods in Social Research*. Boston, Mc Graw Hill.
- Euromonitor, I. (2008). *Cafes/bars - New Zealand*.
- Evans, J. R., and Lindsay, W. M. (1999). *The management and control of quality*. Ohio, South-Western College Publishing.
- Evans, J. R., and Lindsay, W. M. (2005). *The management and control of quality* (6th edition ed.). Ohio, Thomson South-Western.
- Farquhar, (1989). Managing brand equity. *Marketing research*, 1(3), 24-33.
- Farquhar. (1994). Strategic challenges for branding. *Marketing Management*, 3(2), 8-15.
- Featherstone, M. (1991). *Consumer culture and postmodernism*. London, Sage Publication Ltd.
- Feltenstein, T. (1988). Restaurant Franchising: Is There Still Room for Survival? *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 29(1), 8.
- Fine, G. A. (2001). You are where you eat. *Contemporary Sociology*, 30(3), 231.
- First, I., and Khetriwal, D. S. (2008). Exploring the relationship between environmental orientation and brand value: is there fire or only smoke? *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 19(2), 90-103.
- Flick, U. (2009). *An Introduction to Qualitative Research* (4 ed.). London, Sage Publication Ltd.
- Foster, B. (2005). In the absence of trust is 'obey me' the only mantra? *Journal of Financial Regulation and Compliance*, 13(3), 254-259.
- Fournier, S., and Yao, J. L. (1997). Reviving brand loyalty: A reconceptualization within the framework of consumer-brand relationships. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 14(5), 451-472.
- George, W. R. (1990). Internal marketing and organisational behavior: a partnership in developing customer-conscious employees at every level. *Journal of Business Research*, 20(1), 63-70.

- Gerring, J. (2007). *Case Study Research Principles and practice*. New York, Cambridge University Press.
- Ghodeswar, B., M. . (2008). Building brand identity in competitive markets: a conceptual model. *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 17(1), 4.
- Ghodeswar, B., M. . (2008). Building brand identity in competitive markets: a conceptual model. *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 17(1), 4.
- Ghose, K. (2002). Practice papers: ABC--anchoring the brand concept. *Journal of Brand Management*, 10(2), 95-105.
- Gillham, B. (2005). *Research interviewing the range of techniques*. England, Open University Press.
- Glanz, K., and Hoelscher, D. (2004). Increasing fruit and vegetable intake by changing environments, policy and pricing: restaurant-based research, strategies, and recommendations. *Preventive Medicine*, 39, 88-93.
- Glaser, B., and Strauss, A. (1967). *The Discovery of Grounded Theory*. Chicago: Aldine.
- Godin, S. (2008). *Tribes*. London, Piatkus.
- Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 8(4), 597-607.
- Gonçalves, K. P. (1998). *Services marketing: A strategic approach*. New Jersey, Prentice Hall.
- Goodman, D. J., and Cohen, M. (2004). *Consumer culture: A reference handbook*. California, Abc-clio Inc.
- Gopalani, A., and Shick, K. (2011). The service-enabled customer experience: a jump-start to competitive advantage. *Journal of Business Strategy*, 32(3), 4-12.
- Goulding, C. (2005). Grounded theory, ethnography and phenomenology: A comparative analysis of three qualitative strategies for marketing research. *European Journal of Marketing*, 39(3/4), 294-308.
- Gounaris, S. (2008). Antecedents of internal marketing practice: some preliminary empirical evidence. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 19(3), 400.
- Graeff, T. R. (1996). Using promotional messages to manage the effects of brand and self-image on brand evaluations. *The Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 13(3), 4-18.
- Gray, B., Matear, S., Shaw, V., Garrett, T., Deans, K., Osborne, P., . . . McLachlan, E. (2003). Overcoming barriers to better performance in Service Businesses. *Marketing Performance Centre: University of Otago*.
- Gray, B., Matear, S., Shaw, V., Garrett, T., Deans, K., Osborne, P., Knightbridge, K., Hassan, Gronroos, C. (1990). Relationship approach to marketing in service contexts: the marketing and organisational behavior interface. *Journal of Business Research*, 20(1), 3-11.
- Grönroos, C. (2001). The perceived service quality concept—a mistake? *Managing Service Quality*, 11(3), 150-152.
- Guba, E. G., and Lincoln, Y. S. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry* (Vol. 75). California, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Hall, B. J. (2005). *Among cultures: The challenge of communication*. Belmont, Thomson Wadsworth Pub.
- Hall, S., and Gieben, B. (1992). *Formations of modernity*. Cambridge, Polity Press.
- Hamarn, D., Williams, R. L. J., and Maktoba, O. (2007). Branding Strategy and consumer High Technology Product *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 13.
- Hammersley, M., and Atkinson, P. (1983). *Ethnography: principles in practice*. New York, Tavistock Pub.
- Handy, C. (1999). *Understanding Organisation*. England, Penguin Group.
- Hankinson, P. (1999). An empirical study which compares the organisational structures of companies managing the World's Top 100 brands with those managing outsider brands. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 8(5), 402-415.
- Hankinson, P., and Hankinson, G. (1999). Managing Successful Brands: An Empirical Study which Compares the Corporate Cultures of Companies Managing the World's Top 100 Brands with Those Managing Outsider Brands. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15(1-3), 135-155.

- Harris, F., and de Chernatony, L. (2001). Corporate branding and corporate brand performance. *European Journal of Marketing*, 35(3/4), 441.
- Harris, P. (2007). We the people: The importance of employees in the process of building customer experience. *Journal of Brand Management*, 15(2), 102-114.
- Hatch, M. J. (1993). The dynamics of organisational culture. *Academy of Management Review*, 657-693.
- Hatch, M. J., & Schultz, M. (2010). Toward a theory of brand co-creation with implications for brand governance. *Journal of Brand Management*, 17(8), 590-604.
- Hatch, M. J., and Schultz, M. (1997). Relations between organisational culture, identity and image. *European Journal of Marketing*, 31(5/6), 356.
- Hatch, M. J., and Schultz, M. (2003). Bringing the corporation into corporate branding. *European Journal of Marketing*, 37(7/8), 1041-1064.
- Hay, C. (2000). *How to grow your hospitality business*. Christchurch, HandH Publishing.
- He, H., Li, Y., & Harris, L. (2012). Social identity perspective on brand loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, 65(5), 648-657.
- Hickman, T. M., Lawrence, K. E., and Ward, J. C. (2005). A Social Identities Perspective on the Effects of Corporate Sport Sponsorship on Employees. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 14(3), 148-157.
- Hofstede, and Hofstede. (2005). *Cultures and organisation: Software of the Mind*. USA, McGraw-Hill.
- Hofstede, G. (2007). Asian management in the 21st century. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 24(4), 411-420.
- Hofstede. (1998). Think locally, act globally: cultural constraints in personnel management. *MIR: Management International Review*, 7-26.
- Hogan, S., Almquist, E., and Glynn, S. E. (2005). Brand-building: finding the touchpoints that count. *The Journal of Business Strategy*, 26(2), 11.
- Honda. (2012). *About Honda*. Retrieved 17/08/2012, from <http://corporate.honda.com/about/>
- Horan, G., O'Dwyer, M., and Tiernan, S. (2011). Exploring management perspectives of branding in service SMEs. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 25(2), 114-121.
- Hornby, A. S. (2005). *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary: International Student's Edition*: Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Hornby, A. S. (Ed.) (1995). *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary*. Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Hotho, S. (2008). Professional identity - product of structure, product of choice. *Journal of Organisational Change Management*, 21(6), 721-742.
- House, R. J., and Program, G. L. a. O. B. E. R. (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organisations : the GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage Publications.
- <http://www.nzhistory.net.nz/culture/the-daily-grind-wellington-cafe-culture-1920-2000>
- Hu, H.-H., Kandampully, J., and Juwaheer, T. D. (2009). Relationships and impacts of service quality, perceived value, customer satisfaction, and image: an empirical study. *The Service Industries Journal*, 29(2), 111-125.
- Hua, N., and Templeton, A. (2010). Forces driving the growth of the restaurant industry in the USA. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 22(1), 56-68.
- Hudson, B. T. (1995). Venture capital in the restaurant industry. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 36(3), 50-50.
- Hynes, N. (2009). Colour and meaning in corporate logos: An empirical study. *Journal of Brand Management*, 16(8), 545.
- Hynes, N. (2009). Colour and meaning in corporate logos: An empirical study. *Journal of Brand Management*, 16(8), 545.
- Imber, J., and Toffler, B.-A. (2000). *Dictionary of Marketing Terms*. New York, Barron's Educational Series.
- Janonis, V., Dovalien, A., and Virvilait, R. (2007). Relationship of brand identity and image. *Engineering Economics*(1 (51)), 69.

- Jevons, C. (2005). Names, brands, branding: beyond the signs, symbols, products and services. *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 14(2/3), 117.
- Jevons, C., Gabbott, M., and de Chernatony, L. (2005). Customer and brand manager perspectives on brand relationships: a conceptual framework. *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 14(4/5), 300.
- Johns, N., and Howard, A. (1998). Customer expectations versus perceptions of service performance in the foodservice industry. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 9(3), 248-265.
- Johnson, J. M. (1975). *Doign Field Research*. New York, The Free Press.
- Jones, P., and Lockwood, A. (1998). Operations management research in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 17(2), 183-202.
- Jun, J., Cho, C., and Kwon, H. (2008). The role of affect and cognition in consumer evaluations of corporate visual identity: Perspectives from the United States and Korea. *Journal of Brand Management*, 15(6), 382.
- Kalargyrou, V., Pescosolido, A. T., and Kalargiros, E. A. (2012). LEADERSHIP SKILLS IN MANAGEMENT EDUCATION. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*, 16(4), 39-63.
- Kapferer, J. N. (2004). *The new strategic brand management*. London, Kogan Page Ltd.
- Kapferer, J. N. (2008). *The new strategic brand management: creating and sustaining brand equity long term*. London, Kogan Page Ltd.
- Kapferer, J.-N. (1992). *Strategic brand management*. London, Kogan Page Ltd.
- Kapferer, J.-N. (1997). *Strategic brand management*. London, Kogan Page Ltd.
- Kapferer. (2008). *The new strategic brand management: creating and sustaining brand equity long term*: Kogan Page Ltd.
- Karp, T., and Thomas, I. T. H. (2009). Leadership as identity construction: the act of leading people in organisations. *The Journal of Management Development*, 28(10), 880-896.
- Kau, A.-K., and Loh, E. W.-Y. (2006). The effects of service recovery on consumer satisfaction: a comparison between complainants and non-complainants. *The Journal of Services Marketing*, 20(2), 101-101-111.
- Keefe, T. J. (2007). Know Thyself: Developing a Strong Employer Brand. *American Water Works Association. Journal*, 99(8), 20.
- Keegan, S. (2009). *Qualitative Research: Good decision making through undersanding people, cultures and markets*. London, Kogan Page Ltd.
- Keller, K. L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(1), 1.
- Keller, K. L. (1999). Managing Brands for the long run: Brand reinforcement and revitalization strategies. *California management review*, 41(3), 102-124.
- Keller, K. L. (2001). *Building customer-based brand equity: a blueprint for creating strong brands*. MSI Report, 01-107.
- Keller, K. L. (2008). *Strategic Brand Management; Building, Measuring, and Managing Brand Equity*. (3rd ed.). New Jersey, Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Keller, K. L. (2013). *Strategic Brand Management* (4 ed.). London: Pearson education.
- Keller, K. L., and Lehmann, D. R. (2006). Brands and Branding: Research Findings and Future Priorities. *Marketing Science*, 25(6), 740-759.
- Keller, K. L., and Richey, K. (2006). The importance of corporate brand personality traits to a successful 21st century business. *Journal of Brand Management*, 14(1), 74-81.
- Kelly, D., and Gibbons, M. (2008). Ethnography: The good, the bad and the ugly. *Journal of Medical Marketing*, 8(4), 279-285.
- Kevin Lane, K., & Keith, R. (2006). The importance of corporate brand personality traits to a successful 21st century business. 14, 74.
- Kiefer, N. M. (2002). Economics and the Origin of the Restaurant. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 43(4), 58.

- King, C., and Grace, D. (2006). Exploring managers' perspectives of the impact of brand management strategies on employee roles within a service firm. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 20(6), 369-380.
- King, C., and Grace, D. (2007). Internal branding: Exploring the employee's perspective. *Journal of Brand Management*, 15(5), 358-372.
- Kirk, J., and Miller, M. L. (1986). *Reliability and validity in qualitative research*. California, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Kitchen, P. J., and Schultz, D. E. (2003). Integrated corporate and product brand communication (1). *Advances in Competitiveness Research*, 11(1), 66.
- Klaus, P., and Maklan, S. (2007). The role of brands in a service-dominated world. *Journal of Brand Management*, 15(2), 115-122.
- Klijin, M., and Tomic, W. (2010). A review of creativity within organisations from a psychological perspective. *The Journal of Management Development*, 29(4), 322-322-343.
- Kluckhohn, C., and Mowrer, O. H. (1944). "CULTURE AND PERSONALITY": A CONCEPTUAL SCHEME. *American Anthropologist*, 46(1), 1-29.
- Knight, G. (2000). Entrepreneurship and marketing strategy: the SME under globalization. *Journal of International Marketing*, 12-32.
- Koch, T. (1998). Story telling: is it really research? *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 28(6), 1182-1190.
- Konecnik, M., and Go, F. (2007). Tourism destination brand identity: The case of Slovenia. *Journal of Brand Management*, 15(3), 177-189.
- Kotler, P. R. (1973). The major tasks of marketing management. *The Journal of Marketing*, 42-49.
- Kotler, P. R. (1997). *Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, Implementation and Control*. Englewood Cliffs, Prentice Hall.
- Kotler, P. R. (2000). *Marketing management*. Upper Saddle River, Prentice Hall.
- Kotler, P. R., and Zaltman, G. (1971). Social Marketing: An Approach to Planned Social Change. *Journal of Marketing*, 35(3), 3-12.
- Kotler, P. R., Brown, L., Adam, S., and Armstrong, G. (2004). *Marketing* (6th ed.). NSW: Prentice Hall.
- Krauss, S. E. (2005). Research paradigms and meaning making: A primer. *The Qualitative Report*, 10(4), 758-770.
- Krishnan, B. C., and Hartline, M. D. (2001). Brand equity: Is it more important in services? *The Journal of Services Marketing*, 15(4/5), 328.
- Kumar, V., Katherine, N. L., and Parasuraman, A. (2006). Managing Customers for Value: An Overview and Research Agenda. *Journal of Service Research*, 9(2), 87.
- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. California, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Kyriakidou, O., and Gore, J. (2005). Learning by example: Benchmarking organisational culture in hospitality, tourism and leisure SMEs. *Benchmarking*, 12(3), 192.
- Ladyshevsky, R. K. (2010). The manager as coach as a driver of organisational development. *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 31(4), 292-292-306.
- Lashley, C. (2008). Studying hospitality: Insights from social sciences. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 8(1), 69-84.
- Lasswell, H. D. (1948). The structure and function of communication in society. *The communication of ideas*, 37-51.
- Lawler, S. (2008). *Identity: Sociological Perspectives*. Cambridge, Polity.
- Lawson, R., Tidwell, P., Rainbird, P., Loudon, D., and Della Bitta, A. (1996). *Consumer Behaviour in Australia and New Zealand*. New South Wales, McGraw Hill.
- Lee, C., and Wen-Jung, C. (2005). The Effects of Internal Marketing and Organisational Culture on Knowledge Management in the Information Technology Industry. *International Journal of Management*, 22(4), 661-672.
- Lee, E.-j., and Rhee, E.-y. (2008). Conceptual framework of within-category brand personality based on consumers' perception (WCBP-CP): The case of men's apparel category in South Korea. *Journal of Brand Management*, 15(6), 465-489.

- Lee, H., and Jain, D. (2009). Dubai's brand assessment success and failure in brand management - Part 1. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 5(3), 234-246.
- Lee, Y. L., and Hing, N. (1995). Measuring quality in restaurant operations: an application of the SERVQUAL instrument. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 14(3-4), 293-310.
- Liamputtong, P., and Ezzy, D. (2005). *Qualitative research methods* (2nd ed.). New York, University Press.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry* (Vol. 75): Sage Publications, Inc.
- Lockwood, N. R., and Sphr, G. (2007). Leveraging Employee Engagement for Competitive Advantage. *Society for Human Research Management*.
- Lofland, J., Snow, D., Anderson, L., and Lofland, L. H. (2006). *Analyzing social settings : a guide to qualitative observation and analysis* (4 ed.). Toronto: Wadsworth.
- Logan, D., King, J. P., and Fischer-Wright, H. (2008). *Tribal leadership: leveraging natural groups to build a thriving orgainzation*. New York, HarperBusiness.
- Long, T., and Johnson, M. (2000). Rigour, reliability and validity in qualitative research. *Clinical effectiveness in nursing*, 4(1), 30-37.
- Longenecker, C. O., Sims, H. P., and Gioia, D. A. (1987). Behind the mask: The politics of employee appraisal. *The Academy of Management Executive* (1987-1989), 183-193.
- Lord, R. G., and Brown, D. J. (2001). Leadership, values, and subordinate self-concepts. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 12(2), 133-152.
- Lory, M., and McCalman, J. (2002). Management consultancies as brands: Can David learn from Goliath? *The Journal of Brand Management*, 9(6), 412-429.
- Lovelock, C., and Wright, L. (1999). *Principle of Service Marketing and Management*. New Jersey, Prentice Hall.
- Luczak, C. A., Pfoertsch, W., Beuk, F., and Chandler, J. D. (2007). In-branding development of a conceptual model. *11*, 11.
- Lundy, O., and Cowling, A., and. (1996). *Strategic Human Resource Strategy*: London, Routledge.
- Macrae, C., and Uncles, M. D. (1997). Rethinking brand management: the role of "brand chartering". *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 6(1), 64.
- Madanoglu, M., Erdem, M., and Gursoy, D. (2008). Risk return and cost of equity of small and large casual-dining restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27(1), 109-118.
- Madhavaram, S., Badrinarayanan, V., and McDonald, R. E. (2005). Integrated marketing communications (IMC) and brand identity as critical components of brand equity strategy. A Conceptual Framework and Research Propositions. *Journal of Advertising*, 34(4), 69-80.
- Mahmood, S., and Ali, B. (2011). An Empirical Investigation on Knowledge Workers Productivity in Telecom Sector of Pakistan. *Information Management and Business Review*, 3 (1), 27-38.
- Mahnert, K. F., and Torres, A. M. (2007). The brand inside: The factors of failure and success in internal branding. *19*, 10.
- Mayfield, J., and Mayfield, M. (2002). Leader communication strategies critical paths to improving employee commitment. *American Business Review*, 20(2), 89-94.
- McAleese, D., and Hargie, O. (2004). Five guiding principles of culture management: A synthesis of best practice. *Journal of Communication Management*, 9(2), 155-170.
- McCracken, G. (1986). Culture and consumption: A theoretical account of the structure and movement of the cultural meaning of consumer goods. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 71-84.
- McEnally, M. R., and de Chernatony, L. (1999). The evolving nature of branding: consumer and managerial considerations. *Academy of Marketing Science Review*, 2(1), 1-16.
- Melewar, T., & Saunders, J. (2000). Global corporate visual identity systems: using an extended marketing mix. *European Journal of Marketing*, 34(5/6), 538-550.
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative Research and Case Study Applications in Education. Revised and Expanded from " Case Study Research in Education."*. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Miles, M. B., and Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. California, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Miles, S. (1998). *Consumerism: as a way of life*. London, Sage Publications Ltd.

- Mirvis, P. H. (1994). Environmentalism in progressive businesses. *Journal of Organisational Change Management*, 7(4), 82-82.
- Mishra, S. (2009). Internal Marketing-A Tool to Harness Employees' Power in Service Organisations in India. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(1), P185.
- Mohsin, A. (2006). A Case of Control Practice in Restaurants and Cafes in Hamilton, New Zealand. *Journal of American Academy of Business*, 8(1), 271-276.
- Moorthi, Y. (2002). An approach to branding services. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 16(3), 259-274.
- Mosley, R. M. (2007). Customer experience, organisational culture and the employer brand. *Brand Management*, 15(2), 123-134.
- Mulky, V. P. (2001). Strategies for Product and Brand Identity in the Indian Tea Industry. *Decision*, 28(July-December), 23-42.
- Mullen, B., and Goethals, G. R. (1987). *Theories of group behavior*: Springer Verlag.
- Muniz, A. M., and O'Guinn, T. C. (2001). Brand community. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 27(4), 412-432.
- Myers, C. A. (2003). Managing brand equity: A look at the impact of attributes. *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 12(1), 39.
- Myers, M. (2000). Qualitative research and the generalizability question: Standing firm with Proteus. *The Qualitative Report*, 4(3/4), 1-9.
- Namkung, Y., and Jang, S. C. S. (2008). Are highly satisfied restaurant customers really different? A quality perception perspective. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(2), 142-155.
- Nandan, S. (2005). An exploration of the brand identity-brand image linkage: A communications perspective. *Journal of Brand Management*, 12(4), 264-278.
- Ng, S., David, M. E., and Dagger, T. S. (2011). Generating positive word-of-mouth in the service experience. *Managing Service Quality*, 21(2), 133-151.
- Nicholas, J., Ledwith, A., & Perks, H. (2011). New product development best practice in SME and large organisations: theory vs practice. *European Journal of Innovation Management*, 14(2), 227-251.
- Nohria, N., Groysberg, B., and Lee, L. E. (2008). Employee Motivation. *Harvard Business Review*, 1.
- Noordhoff, C., Pauwels, P., and Odekerken-Schroder, G. (2004). The effect of customer card programs: A comparative study in Singapore and The Netherlands. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 15(3/4), 351-364.
- O'Connor, D. (2005). Towards a new interpretation of "hospitality". *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 17(2/3), 267-267-271.
- Ortiz, M. H., and Harrison, M. P. (2011). Crazy Little Thing Called Love: A Consumer-Retailer Relationship. *Journal of Marketing Development and Competitiveness*, 5(3), 68-80.
- Ortony, A. (1993). *Metaphor and thought*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Ottensbacher, M., Gnoth, J., and Jones, P. (2006). Identifying determinants of success in development of new high-contact services: Insights from the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 17(4), 344-363.
- Ottensbacher, M., Harrington, R., and Parsa, H. G. (2009). Defining the Hospitality Discipline: a Discussion of Pedagogical and Research Implications. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 33(3), 263.
- Ouchi, W. G., and Wilkins, A. L. (1985). Organisational culture. *Annual review of sociology*, 457-483.
- Paliwoda, S. J., and Slater, S. (2009). Globalisation through the kaleidoscope. *International Marketing Review*, 26(4/5), 373-383.
- Parasuraman, A., Berry, L. L., and Zeithaml, V. A. (1991). Understanding Customer Expectations of Service. *Sloan Management Review*, 32(3), 39.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., and Berry, L. L. (1985). A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *The Journal of Marketing*, 49(4), 41-50.
- Park, C. S., and Srinivasan, V. (1994). A survey-based method for measuring and understanding brand. *JMR, Journal of Marketing Research*, 31(2), 271.

- Parker, S. K., Bindl, U. K., and Strauss, K. (2010). Making things happen: A model of proactive motivation. *Journal of Management*, 36(4), 827.
- Patton, M. Q. (1980). *Qualitative Evaluation Methods*. California, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Patton, M. Q. (2001). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. California, Sage Publications, Ltd.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and Evaluation Method*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publication.
- Phau, I., and Kong Cheen, L. (2000). Conceptualising brand personality: A review and research propositions. *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, 9(1), 52-69.
- Pink, D. H. (2005). *A whole new mind: Moving from the information age to the conceptual age*. Allen and Unwin. Retrieved from <http://books.google.co.nz/books?id=OuPfRwAACAAJ>
- Pitta, D. (2008). Providing the tools to build brand share of heart: Gydget.com. *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 17(4), 280-284.
- Ponnam, A. (2007). Comprehending the Strategic Brand Building Framework of Kingfisher in the Context of Brand Identity Prism. *The Icfai Journal of Brand Management* 4(4), 63-71.
- Powell, S., & Ennis, S. (2007). Organisational marketing in the creative industries. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 10(4), 375-389.
- Pugliese, M. J., and Cagan, J. (2002). Capturing a rebel: modeling the Harley-Davidson brand through a motorcycle shape grammar. *Research in Engineering Design*, 13(3), 139-156.
- Punch, K. F. (2005). *Introduction to Social Research* (2nd Edition ed.). London, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Rafiq, M., and Ahmed, P., K. . (1998). A customer-oriented framework for empowering service employees. *The Journal of Services Marketing*, 12(5), 379.
- Ranjan, D. P., (2003). The determinants of brand loyalty. *Journal of American Academy of Business, Cambridge*, 3(1/2), 138.
- Rashid, T. (2003). CASE STUDY: Relationship marketing: case studies of personal experiences of eating out. *British Food Journal*, 105(10/11), 742-750.
- Ravasi, D., and Schultz, M. (2006). Responding to organisational identity threats: Exploring the role of organisational culture. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(3), 433-458.
- Reid, J. (2011). "We don't Twitter, we Facebook": An alternative pedagogical space that enables critical practices in relation to writing. *English Teaching*, 10(1), 58-n/a.
- Reid, R. D., and Bojanic, D. C. (2010). *Hospitality Marketing Management* (5th ed.). New Jersey, Wiley and Sons.
- Reynolds, J. S. (2004). *Hospitality Services: Food and Lodging*. Illinois, The Goodheart-Willcox Company.
- Rice, C. (2010). Latinas in the Movies. *The Hispanic Outlook in Higher Education*, 21(2), 28-30.
- Richards, L. (2005). *Handling Qualitative Data: A practical Guide*. California: SAGE Publications.
- Riley, M. (2005). Food and beverage management: A review of change. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 17(1), 88-93. .
- Rode, V., & Vallaster, C. (2005). Corporate branding for start-ups: the crucial role of entrepreneurs. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 8(2), 121-135.
- Ross, J., and Harradine, R. (2011). Fashion value brands: the relationship between identity and image. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 15(3), 306-325.
- Roy, D., and Banerjee, S. (2007). CARE-ing strategy for integration of brand identity with brand image. *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, 17(1/2), 140-148.
- Roy, K. (2010). The Demise and Subsequent Spiritual Resurgence of Celebrity Brands: An Empirical Study [Article]. *Journal of Marketing and Communication*, 5(3), 24-29.
- Rozin, S. R. (2002). Editorial: The branding iron: From cowboys to corporations. *Journal of Brand Management*, 10(1), 4.
- Saldaña, J. (2009). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. London, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Samsung. (2012). *About Samsung: Values and Philosophy*. Retrieved 21 November, 2012, from <http://www.samsung.com/us/aboutsamsung/corporateprofile/valuesphilosophy.html>

- Sanchez-Gutierrez, J., Gutierrez-Govea, A., Gaytan-Cortes, J., and Garcia-Jimenez, E. (2011). Corporate Social Responsibility and Competitiveness in the Restaurant Industry in Guadalajara. *Competition Forum*, 9(1), 137-143.
- Sapsford, R., and Jupp, V. (1996). Validating evidence. In R. Sapsford and V. Jupp (Ed.)
- Schein, E. H. (1984). Coming to a New Awareness of Organisational Culture. *Sloan Management Review*, 25(2), 3.
- Schein, E. H. (1988). Organisational Culture. *American psychologist*, 45(2), 109
- Schein, E. H. (1992). *Organisational culture and leadership*. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass Pub.
- Schein, E. H. (1996). Culture: The missing concept in organisation studies. *Administrative science quarterly*, 229-240.
- Schuling, I., and Kapferer, J. N. (2004). Real differences between local and international brands: strategic implications for international marketers. *Journal of International Marketing*, 97-112.
- Schultz, D. E. (2001). The core of integration is the brand. *Marketing Management*, 10(1), 6.
- Schultz. (2002). Who owns the brand? *Marketing Management*, 11(5), 8.
- Schumpeter, J. A., and Perlman, M. (1952). *Ten great economists: from Marx to Keynes*: Allen and Unwin.
- Scott, B. (2006). Scottish café society: contemporary consumption issues and lifestyle identities. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18(1), 60-68.
- Senge, P. M. (2006). *The fifth discipline: the art and practice of the learning organisation*. New York: Doubleday/Currency. Retrieved from <http://books.google.com/books?id=qcHB5iEDSlgC>
- Shantini, M., Bick, G., and Abratt, R. (2006). A framework for brand revitalization through an upscale line extension. *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 15(3), 157-167.
- Shaw, E. (1999). A guide to the qualitative research process: evidence from a small firm study. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 2(2), 59-70.
- Sheth, J. N., Sethia, N. K., and Srinivas, S. (2011). Mindful consumption: a customer-centric approach to sustainability. *Academy of Marketing Science. Journal*, 39(1), 21-39.
- Shostack, G. L. (1977). Breaking free from product marketing. *The Journal of Marketing*, 41(2), 73-80.
- Silverman, D. (2006). *Interpreting qualitative data: Methods for analyzing talk, text, and interaction*. London, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Silverman, D. (2010). *Qualitative research*. London, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Silverman, D. (2011). *Interpreting qualitative data*. London, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Skousen, M. (2009). *The Making of Modern Economics: The Lives and Ideas of the Great Thinkers* (2nd ed.). New York, M. E. Sharpe Publisher.
- Slater, D. (1997). *Consumer culture and modernity*. Cambridge, Polity.
- Sonoda, T. (2002). Honda: Global manufacturing and competitiveness. *Competitiveness Review*, 12(1), 7-13.
- Sorenson, O., and Sørensen, J. B. (2001). Finding the right mix: Franchising, organisational learning, and chain performance. *Strategic Management Journal*, 713-724.
- Spence, M., & Essoussi, L. H. (2010). SME brand building and management: an exploratory study. *European Journal of Marketing*, 44(7/8), 1037-1054.
- Srivastava, R. K. (2011). Understanding brand identity confusion. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 29(4), 340-352.
- Srivastava, R. K., and Thomas, G. M. (2010). Managing brand performance: Aligning positioning, execution and experience. *Journal of Brand Management*, 17(7), 465-471.
- Starbucks. (2012). Starbucks Company Timeline Retrieved 14/10/2012, 2013, from <http://www.starbucks.com/assets/e56b2a6b08244aaab0632dc6ac25ad0d.pdf>
- Statistics, A. B. (2008). *Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC)* (1292.0). Canberra, Australian Bureau of Statistics.
- Stockdale, R., & Standing, C. (2004). Benefits and barriers of electronic marketplace participation: an SME perspective. *Journal of Enterprise Information Management*, 17(4), 301-311.
- Strauss, A., and Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research*. California, Sage Publications Ltd.

- Strauss, A., and Corbin, J., and. (1998). *Basics of qualitative Research—Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory*: Thousand Oaks, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Stuart, F. I., and Tax, S. S. (1996). Planning for service quality: an integrative approach. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 7(4), 58-77.
- Sun, S. (2008). Organisational Culture and Its Themes. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 3(12), P137.
- Tajfel, H. (2010). *Social identity and intergroup relations* (Vol. 7). Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Tansuhaj, P., Randall, D., and McCullough, J. (1991). Applying the internal marketing concept within large organisations. *Journal of Professional Services Marketing*, 6(2), 193-202.
- Taras, V., Rowney, J., and Steel, P. (2009). Half a century of measuring culture: Review of approaches, challenges, and limitations based on the analysis of 121 instruments for quantifying culture. *Journal of International Management*, 15(4), 357-373.
- Taylor, S. J., and Bogdan, R. (1998). *Introduction to Qualitative Research Methods* (3rd ed.). New York, John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Taylor, T. (2011). Apple without a core. *Report on Business Magazine*, 10-10. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/913033759?accountid=27890>
- Terkel, S. (1970). *Hard times: An oral history of the Great Depression*. New York, Pantheon books.
- The Treasury, N. Z. (2010). *New Zealand Economic and Financial Overview 2010*. Wellington, The Treasury.
- Thomas, E., and Magilvy, J. K. (2011). Qualitative rigor or research validity in qualitative research. *Journal for Specialists in Pediatric Nursing*, 16(2), 151-155.
- Till, B., and Heckler, D. (2009). *The truth about creating brands people love*. New Jersey, Ft Press.
- Top 5 Social Networking Websites and Forums. (2010). Retrieved 9th November, 2010, from <http://www.socialmediatoday.com/SMC/188449>
- Torp, S. (2009). Integrated communications: from one look to normative consistency. *Corporate Communications*, 14(2), 190-206.
- Trust, N. Z. H. P. (2009). *New Zealand Historic Places Trust* Retrieved 2 February 2009, 2009, from <http://www.historicplaces.org.nz/placesToVisit/otagosouthland/TotaraEstate.aspx>
- Tylor, E. B. (1903). *Primitive Culture* (Vol. 1). London, John Murray..
- Urde, M. (1999). Brand orientation: A mindset for building brands into strategic resources. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15(1-3), 117-133.
- V., McLachlan, E. (2003), *Overcoming Barriers to Better Performance in Service Businesses*, Marketing Performance Centre, University of Otago, Dunedin, .
- Vallaster, C., and de Chernatony, L. (2005). Internationalisation of services brands: The role of leadership during the internal brand building process. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 21, 1(2), 181-203.
- Van Rompay, T. J. L., Pruyn, A. T. H., and Tieke, P. (2009). Symbolic Meaning Integration in Design and its Influence on Product and Brand Evaluation. *International Journal of Design*, 3(2).
- VanAuken, B. (2002). *The brand management checklist*. London: Kogan Page Limited.
- Vargo, S. L., & Lusch, R. F. (2004). Evolving to a New Dominant Logic for Marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 68, 1-17.
- Vargo, S. L., and Lusch, R. F. (2004). Evolving to a New Dominant Logic for Marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 68, 1-17.
- Vasconcelos, A. F. (2008). Broadening even more the internal marketing concept. *European Journal of Marketing*, 42(11/12), 1246.
- Vasconcelos, A. F. (2011). Internal Demarketing Construct, Research Propositions and managerial implications. *Management and Marketing*, 6(1), 35-58.
- Veloutsou, C., and Moutinho, L. (2009). Brand relationships through brand reputation and brand tribalism. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(3), 314-322.
- Viot, C. (2011). Can brand identity predict brand extensions' success or failure? *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 20(3), 216-227.
- Vise, D. A. (2005). *The Google Story*. New York, Bantam Dell.

- Vise, D. A. (2006). Google. *Foreign Policy*(154), 20-24.
- Vise, D. A. (2008). *The google story*. California, Delcorta Press.
- Vukasovic, T. (2009). Searching for competitive advantage with the aid of the brand potential index. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 18(3), 165-176.
- Wagner, O., and Peters, M. (2009). Can association methods reveal the effects of internal branding on tourism destination stakeholders? *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 2(1), 52-69.
- Walker, J. R. (2008). *The restaurant: from concept to operation*. New Jersey, John Wiley and Sons.
- Wallström, Å., Karlsson, T., and Salehi-sangari, E. (2008). Building a corporate brand: The internal brand building process in Swedish service firms. *Journal of Brand Management*, 16(1-2), 40-50.
- Wang, X. (2011). The effect of inconsistent word-of-mouth during the service encounter. *The Journal of Services Marketing*, 25(4), 252-259.
- Waryszak, R., and King, B. (2001). Managerial attitudes towards work activities in the hospitality and service industries. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 13(4/5), 197-197-203.
- Wasmer, D. J., and Bruner II, G. C. (1991). Using Organisational Culture to Design Internal Marketing St. *The Journal of Services Marketing*, 5(1), 35.
- Webster, C., and Sundaram, D. S. (2009). Effect of service provider's communication style on customer satisfaction in professional services setting: the moderating role of criticality and service nature. *The Journal of Services Marketing*, 23(2), 103-104-114.
- Wesley, S. C., Fowler, D. C., and Vazquez, M. E. (2006). Retail personality and the Hispanic consumer. *Managing Service Quality*, 16(2), 167-184.
- Wheeler, A. (2013). *Designing brand identity: an essential guide for the whole branding team*. New Jersey: Wiley.
- Wheeler, A. R., Richey, R. G., Tokkman, M., and Sablynski, C. J. (2006). Retaining employees for service competency: The role of corporate brand identity. *Journal of Brand Management*, 14(1/2), 96-113.
- Wiese, D. S., and Buckley, M. R. (1998). The evolution of the performance appraisal process. *Journal of Management History*, 4(3), 233-233.
- Williams, K. (2008). The Culture of Change. *Illuminations*(1), 7.
- Wilson, A. M. (2001). Understanding organisational culture and the implications for corporate marketing. *European Journal of Marketing*, 35(3/4), 353.
- Wong, A., and Sohal, A. (2003). Service quality and customer loyalty perspectives on two levels of retail relationships. *The Journal of Services Marketing*, 17(4/5), 495-495-513.
- Wood, R. C. (2007). The Future of Food and Beverage Management Research. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 14(1), 6-16.
- Woods, R. H. (1989). More alike than different: The culture of the restaurant industry. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 30(2), 82-97.
- Yagil, D. (2006). The relationship of service provider power motivation, empowerment and burnout to customer satisfaction. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 17(3), 258-270.
- Yan, J. (2011). Social media in branding: Fulfilling a need. *Journal of Brand Management*, 18(9), 688-696.
- Yaniv, E., and Farkas, F. (2005). The impact of person-organisation fit on the corporate brand perception of employees and of customers. *Journal of Change Management*, 5(4), 447-461.
- Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case Study Research Design and Methods* (2nd Edition ed.). London, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Yu-Ning, H., Hsiao, C., and Yang, J. (2009). Cultural Values Affect Consumer Behavior in Taiwan Cafes. *The Business Review*, 12(1), 262-266.
- Zaichkowsky, J. L. (2010). Strategies for distinctive brands. *Journal of Brand Management*, 17(8), 548-548-560.

- Zaltman, G., and Coulter, R. H. (1995). Seeing the voice of the customer: Metaphor-based advertising research. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 35(4), 35-51.
- Zeithaml, V. A., Bitner, M. J., and Gremler, D. D. (2009). *Services marketing: Integrating customer focus across the firm* (5th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Boston.
- Zeithaml, V. A., Parasuraman, A., and Berry, L. L. (1990). *Delivering quality service: Balancing customer perceptions and expectations*. New York, Free Press.
- Zineldin, M. (2006). The royalty of loyalty: CRM, quality and retention. *The Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 23(7), 430-430-437.

Appendices

Appendix A : Field Research

A.1 Indication of Interview Questions

The initial interview questions were designed based on the Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006, p. 766) approach.

Note: this is for the researcher's reference only.

RQ/RO	Semi Structured Interview Questions	Topics/Codes for analysis
		Introduction
RO 1	1. Therefore, in the context of your coffee shops, do you notice any certain behaviour or routine that you can say belong to your outlet that makes your outlet extraordinary?	Culture definition
	<p>2. What are among the important values (morals, principles) that are practiced in the outlet? Mostly every coffee shops has its certain values that they hold on to. Values can be about what is really important to you. They can also be something that you hold on to strongly or your highest priority.</p> <p><i>ambition, competency, individuality, equality, integrity, service, responsibility, accuracy, respect, dedication, diversity, improvement, enjoyment/fun, loyalty, credibility, honesty, innovativeness, teamwork, excellence, accountability, empowerment, quality, efficiency, dignity, collaboration, stewardship, empathy, accomplishment, courage, wisdom, independence, security, challenge, influence, learning, compassion, friendliness, discipline/order, generosity, persistency, optimism, dependability, flexibility</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>People demonstrate and model the values in action in their personal work behaviors, decision making, contribution, and interpersonal interaction.</i> • <i>Organisational values help each person establish priorities in their daily work life.</i> • <i>Values guide every decision that is made once the organisation has cooperatively created the values and the value statements.</i> • <i>Rewards and recognition within the organisation are structured to recognize those people whose work embodies the values the organisation embraced.</i> 	Hofstede Culture exist in the outlet

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Organisational goals are grounded in the identified values.</i> • <i>Adoption of the values and the behaviours that result is recognized in regular performance feedback.</i> • <i>People hire and promote individuals whose outlook and actions are congruent with the values.</i> • <i>Only the active participation of all members of the organisation will ensure a truly organisation-wide, value-based, shared culture.</i> 	
	<p>3. Could you give me examples of routine or day to day work that has been practiced in your outlet? Examples of what you need to do during the opening hours. Chores.</p>	Culture exist in the outlet
RO 2	<p>4. Will it be OK for you to share some of your manuals that you need to follow to operate the business</p>	Implementing OC
RQ 1 RO 2	<p>5. As an outlet, do you have certain procedure that you need to follow in order to achieve the same quality everytime.</p> <p>a. (Yes) What are the procedures/manual that you need to do daily?</p> <p>b. (No) What do you do to ensure or to achieve the same quality everytime?</p> <p>6. What happens when a new employee starts? How do you train a new employee joining your outlet? Do you conduct any informal or formal training for them? Induction?</p>	Introducing OC
	<p>7. (Visions) Are you aware of your franchisors planning in future (direction)? Of what the outlets are going to become?</p> <p>(Missions) Are you aware of why the outlet exists? Who are your customers? How does this outlet benefit them? And how will the customers will be better off by coming to your outlet?</p>	Building shared value *looking at the visions and missions.
RQ 2	<p>8. You want to bring your outlet to a higher level (better level) than where you are now, in your opinion, what are the things that might need to be done to achieve that?</p>	Brand building
	<p>9. How do you find the importance of the customers being able to recall your service? To be able to remember the speciality of your outlet? <i>For example, we associate McDonald with a fast service for those who are always on the go and Pizza Hut with its different toppings and side dishes to reflect the local market.</i></p> <p>10. How do you see the significance of having strong value</p>	Brand knowledge

	practice in your outlet in helping to build the outlet's brand?	
	<p>11. In your opinion how the internal routine and activities may contribute in improving the quality and services in your outlet? Do you think that these activities will also build the outlet's brand?</p> <p><i>Internal operations consist of;</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Planning •Safety •Asset Management •Equipment Management •Property Management •Procurement and Internal Financial Controls •Human Resources •Information Technology (if applied) 	<p>Influence of IOC in building a brand</p> <p>Looking at internal operations</p>
RQ 3	<p>12. Brand perceptions are about how your customers view your brand, or what they think of your service. In your point of view, do you think the organisations create the perceptions? or the consumers? How? Why?</p>	Brand perception
	<p>13. Service quality generally concerning the service experience that a customer goes through, for example the friendliness of the waiter/waitress, or the taste of the food. How do you feel about a consistent service quality? (important) How do you make sure that you are providing good service quality to your customers?</p>	Service Quality
RQ 4	<p>14. How do you reflect yourself as the owner of this outlet? How do you feel?</p>	Brand satisfaction
	<p>15. As we have discussed earlier, customer experience with your outlet is important to ensure a good service quality and also a good perception towards the brand. How do you get your customers to bond with your outlet/brand? From your experience in handling the outlet, what are the things that might get the customers to keep coming back to your outlet?</p>	Brand loyalty
	<p>16. You are a now an owner of _____. What motivate you to choose this particulars outlet?</p>	Brand perception

A.2 Summary of steps taken in this study

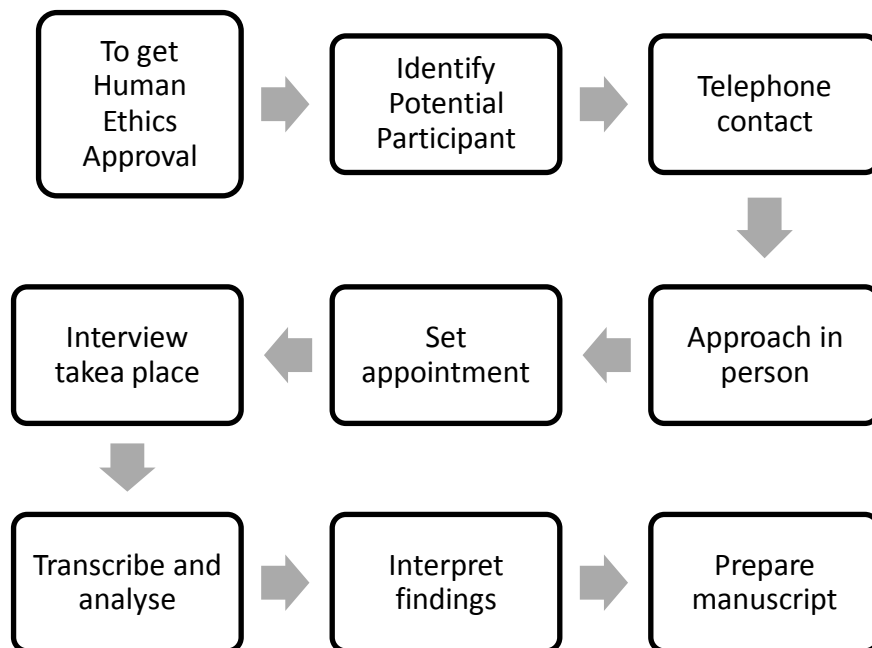


Figure 1 : Study flow

A.3 Field research design

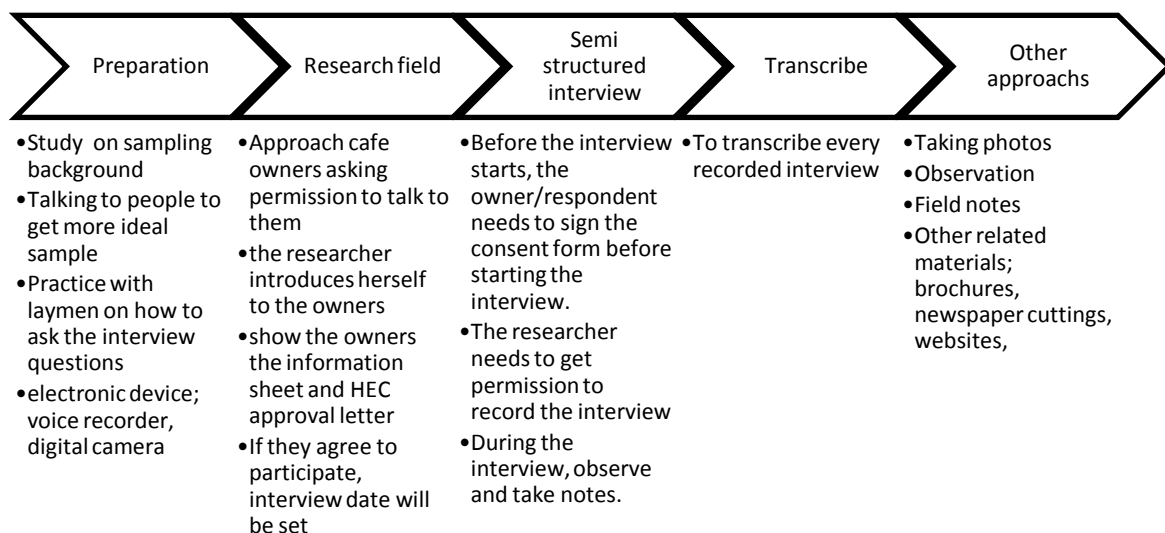


Figure 2 : Steps in field research design

Appendix B : Ethics Related Documents

The process of obtaining human ethics approval

In order to minimize any unfavourable consequences for the research participants, the researcher has to attain human ethics approval prior to commencing data collection. When the data collection involves interaction with another human being it is common to go through a human ethics approval process. Human ethics approval is part of the requirements when undertaking research involving human subjects through interviews or observations, or in any circumstances where recordings of images, video or audio exist.

For this research, the researcher responded to 48 items in the university's human ethics application form. Steps taken in data collection, such as approaching the participant and issues around the anonymity of the participant, need to be explained in detail by the researcher to the committee to protect the participant. The approval of human ethics also protects the researcher and the university's role as a research institution. Along with the human ethics application, the researcher has provided supporting documents, which include; the consent form and interview information sheet.

The consent form is for the participant to read and sign to show that he or she agrees to participate in the research, while the interview information sheet provides information about the study and the researcher's contact number. Human ethics approval was obtained four weeks after submission with only a minor justification needed in the application form. With this approval obtained, the researcher commenced data collection. Throughout the field research, the researcher managed to avoid any unwanted circumstances relating to any ethical issues.

B.1 Lincoln University Human Ethic Committee Approval Letter



Research & Commercialisation Office
PO Box 94
Lincoln University
Canterbury 8150
NEW ZEALAND
Telephone 64 03 325 2811
Fax 64 03 325 3630

Application No: 2009-16

10 June 2009

Title: Incorporating Internal Organisational Culture in Brand Building

Applicants: Sabrina Mohd Rashid

The Lincoln University Human Ethics Committee has reviewed the above noted application.

Dear Sabrina

Thank you for your detailed response to the questions which were forwarded to you on the Committee's behalf.

I am satisfied on the Committee's behalf that the remaining issues of concern have been satisfactorily addressed.

I am pleased to give final approval to your project and may I, on behalf of the Committee, wish you success in your research.

Yours sincerely

Professor Grant Cushman
Chair, Human Ethics Committee

cc: Dr Kamal Ghose (Commerce)
Dr Lyn Boddington (Commerce)

PLEASE NOTE: The Human Ethics Committee has an audit process in place for applications. Please see 7.3 of the Human Ethics Committee Operating Procedures (ACHE) in the Lincoln University Policies and Procedures Manual for more information.

B.2 Interview Information Sheet

DOCUMENT NO:

01

Interview Information Sheet

Faculty of Commerce, Lincoln University

You are invited to participate as a subject in a project entitled :

Incorporating Internal Organisational Culture in Brand Building

You are invited to participate in a project entitled above as part of my doctoral research. The aim of this project is to look at culture in an organisation, such as the way you and your staffs communicate or how problems are solved in an organisation and to see how these activities contribute to build the brand of your franchise.

Your participation in this project will involve in providing information to the interview questions on the routine operations in your franchise and also your views on building the brand of the franchise you owned. You may choose not to answer any questions if you are not comfortable and also may withdraw from the project, including withdrawal of any information you have provided within seven (7) days from the interview date. The interview session should take about 1 hour for the interview session.

Upon participating in this project, you will be in the chance of 1/10 to get free 12 months subscription to any New Zealand magazine not exceeding NZD70.

The results of the project may be published, but you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of data gathered in this investigation. To ensure your confidentiality, your identity will be replaced with a pseudonym which can only be accessed by the principal researcher and her supervisor.

The project is being carried out by:

Name of principal researcher Ms. Sabrina Mohd Rashid

Contact details mohdrass@lincoln.ac.nz

She will be pleased to discuss any concerns you have about participation in the project.

If you have any other concerns about this project you are welcome to contact the supervisors.

Name of Supervisor Dr Kamal Ghose *Contact Details* Kamal.Ghose@lincoln.ac.nz

Name of Supervisor Dr Lyn Boddington *Contact Details* Lyn.Boddington@lincoln.ac.nz

The project has been reviewed and approved by Lincoln University Human Ethics Committee.

Thank you very much for your participation in this research. Your time and effort is appreciated.

B.3 Interview Consent Form

DOCUMENT NO:

02

Interview Consent Form

Faculty of Commerce, Lincoln University

Name of Project:

Incorporating Internal Organisational Culture in Brand Building

I hereby grant Sabrina Mohd Rashid permission to document this interview through audio recording and transcription of the oral interview as part of her PhD thesis at Lincoln University. The purpose and nature of the interview has been explained to me. On this basis I agree to participate as a subject in the research, and I consent to publication of the results of the project with the understanding that anonymity will be preserved. I understand also that I may withdraw from the project, including withdrawal of any information I have provided in two weeks time from the interview date.

Signature of Interviewee

Name

Position/Organisation

Date: _____

ID: _____

(This number will be recorded with your data only so we can withdraw it at your request)

B.4 Interview Questions

DOCUMENT NO:

03

Interview Questions

Faculty of Commerce, Lincoln University

Introduction

Thank you for offering to participate in this interview. This interview aims to look at how you build _____ by focusing on what happens internally in the outlet. It can be the way you communicate to your customer, your employee or how you solve problems in the outlet.

Most of my inquiries will be related to this outlet and its franchisor. I will also be talking about culture. Culture in this context refers to a learned and shared behaviour or value in your outlet. Something that you feel important to ensure the consistent quality of the service provided in your outlet.

1.	<p>You are the owner of _____.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">What motivated you to choose this particular franchise/outlet?How do you feel being the owner of this franchise/outlet?How do you see yourself managing this franchise/outlet?Every franchise/outlet has its certain values that they hold on to. Values can be about what is really important to you. They can also be something that you hold on to strongly or your highest priority. What are among the important values (morals, principles) that are practiced in the outlet?How do you see the significance of having those values in your outlet in helping to build the franchise/outlet brand?What do you feel about the food and drinks that you serve in the outlet?How do you reflect (see) yourself as the owner of this outlet? How do you feel about being a franchise/outlet owner?
2.	<ol style="list-style-type: none">Are you able to share with me the routine in the outlet during the opening hours?<ul style="list-style-type: none">(Yes) <i>What are the procedures/manual that you need to do daily?</i>(No) <i>What do you do to ensure or to achieve the same quality everytime?</i>Could you give me examples of routine or day to day work in your franchise/outlet? Examples of what you need to do during the opening hours. (Chores). (bake, cleaning, stock checking)

	<p>c. In your opinion how do the internal routines and activities contribute to improving the quality and services in your franchise/outlet?</p> <p>d. Do you think that these activities will also build the franchise/outlet brand?</p>
3.	<p>What is your planning for the future?</p> <p>a. Of what the outlets are going to become?</p> <p>Can you tell me why this franchise/outlet exists?</p> <p>b. Who are your customers?</p> <p>c. How does this franchise/outlet benefit them?</p> <p>d. And how will the customers be better off by coming to you franchise/outlet?</p>
4.	<p>Culture is a practice of a certain behaviour that belongs to a certain group of people. For example Starbucks, they don't only sell coffee but they also sell their service and environment. Customers go to Starbucks not only to enjoy their great coffee but also to do business meetings, discussions or gathering for all sorts of purposes.</p> <p>Therefore, in the context of your franchise/outlet,</p> <p>a. Do you notice any certain routine that you can say belong to your franchise/outlet?</p> <p>b. How does that makes your franchise/outlet unique?</p>
5.	<p>Having the right staff to be part of your franchise/outlet (team) is important in creating a lively working environment.</p> <p>a. How do you recruit your staff (team)?</p> <p>b. What are the qualities/values that you look for in a potential staff?</p> <p>What happens when new staffs starts?</p> <p>c. How do you train a new staff joining your outlet?</p> <p>d. Do you conduct any informal or formal training for them? Induction?</p> <p>Once you <i>have</i> found and hired <i>the right staff</i>, the tough <i>part</i> is keeping them working for you.</p>

	e. How do you ensure this?
6.	<p>How do you find the importance of the customers being able to recall your franchise/outlet service? To be able to remember the speciality of your franchise/outlet?</p> <p>For example, we associate McDonald with a fast service for those who are always on the go and Pizza Hut with its different toppings and side dishes to reflect the local market.</p>
7.	<p>Brand perceptions are about how your customers view your brand, or what they think of your service.</p> <p>a. In your point of view, who create these perceptions? Do you think it is the franchise/outlet responsibility? Or the consumers?</p> <p>b. How? Why?</p>
8.	<p>Service quality generally concerning the service experience that a customer goes through, for example the friendliness of the waiter/waitress, or the taste of the food.</p> <p>How do you feel about the importance of a consistent good service?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (Important) How do you make sure that you are providing good service quality to your customers? • (Not Important) Why?
9.	<p>As we have discussed earlier, customer experience with your franchise/outlet is important to ensure a good service quality and also a good perception towards the brand.</p> <p>a. How do you get your customers to bond with your franchise/outlet?</p> <p>b. From your experience in handling the outlet, what are the things that might get the customers to keep coming back to your outlet?</p> <p>c. How do you feel about the importance of local loyalty towards your outlet?</p>
10.	<p>You want to bring your franchise/outlet to a better level than where you are now, in your opinion, what are the things that you need to do to achieve this?</p>

Appendix C : Themes and Coding Framework

C.1 Codings and themes for findings

Internal Operations

The BIG picture

- Managing the Cafe
- Starting the Cafe
- Coffee Shops
- Customer's Database
- Cafe Concept Creation
- Internal Marketing
 - Learning Process
 - Employee Management
 - Training
 - Recruitment
 - Monitoring System
- Problem Solving
- Changes

Managing the cafe

- Handling the café
 1. To be the owner, to be the operator, the entrepreneur, the technician at the same time
 2. Budget
 3. Morning routine
 4. Good maintenance
 5. Cleanliness
 6. Opening Hours
 7. Short waiting time (for customer)
- Business Plan
 8. Efficient business
 9. Detailed business plan
 10. Unique business plan
- Challenge
 11. Fast paced business
- Value for money
 12. Reasonable cost
 13. Profit making
 14. Promotions
 15. Future plans
 16. Staff turnover
 17. Keep standards high

Starting the business

- Opening a cafe
 1. To study the place before opening the café
 2. To find a good premise
 3. To have a plan
 4. To know the demographics of potential customers
 5. To provide other service
 6. To start the business; timing
 7. One size fits all (suitable for any age/ anyone)
- The importance of the café name
 8. To be careful with the logo/shop name
- Location
 9. Heavy food traffic location
 10. Getting to know the locals
 11. Locals perception/acceptation
 12. Convenient location
 13. To be part of a mall/not a part of a mall

In Franchise Coffee Shops

- *Excellent Support System*
 1. *Good Network Support*
 2. *To share information on how things are done*
 3. *To share approaches on how to solve certain problems*
- *Uniformity in the business format*
 4. *Safe business format*
 5. *Complete Guidelines*
 6. *Flexible*
- *Monitoring System*
 7. *Headquarters will do the monitoring*
 8. *Audited*
- *To work within budget and keep improving*
- *A good synergy*
- *Same quality of service/product can be assured everytime by customers*
- *Culture of a franchise – support*

Concept Creation

- Ambience (the character of the place)
 1. Warm atmosphere
 2. Design
 3. An identity
 4. Colour scheme
 5. Space/ café size
 6. Homely style
 7. Setting
 8. Modern
 9. Music
 10. Lighting
 11. Garden setting

- Living in a café
- Environment
- Exclusiveness
- Customer's comfortability
- Seasonal decorations
- Unique Attractions/to offer something different
- Customizes coffee bean blends

Issues arise

- Managing feedback
 1. Comment card (feedback)
- Managing complaints
- Promptness in managing a situation
- To be fast in dealing with customers during :
 2. Lunch hour traffic
 3. Morning break rush
- To make sure waiting time is short
- To keep up with customer demand
- Issues with staff
 4. Talk to staff when there are problems
- Unfortunate things happen
 5. To have a "plan B" for emergencies
(e.g. coffee machine down/ microwave down)
- Seasonal customers/patterns
- Customers disposable income
- Cafe locations
 6. To be in heavy food traffic location

Database

- Information on swipe card
 1. Plastic card with an information chip
- To be up to date with the technology
- Monitor customer purchasing
- To know the customer
- Completing the loyalty card is an achievement for the customer

Changes

- To take time to make changes
- To do subtle changes
- Renovation
- Fresh look

Internal Marketing

The BIG picture

- Employee Management
- Training
- Learning Process
- Recruitment
- Monitoring System
- Communication is important
- Customer oriented
- Make sure employees are happy
- The importance of the café name
 - To be careful with the logo/shop name
 - Owner's reputation (good name)
- To "make it right" every time
- Extra allowance for extra work time
- Reward system for staff/staff birthdays
- Customer service glues the place together

Employee Management

- Complacency in work
- Managers on duty
- Good Staff support
- Low staff turnover
- Staff from different cultures
- Encourage the staff
 1. "If I can do this, you can do it" attitude
 2. To keep eye on things
 3. To understand the customer's mode
 4. To know the customer
 5. To know what you do
 6. No gossiping in the café
- Reward system for staff
 7. Staff birthdays
 8. Death in family
 9. Incentives in showing progress in job skill
 10. Extra allowance for extra work time
 11. Staff day out
 12. Staff day off

Recruitment

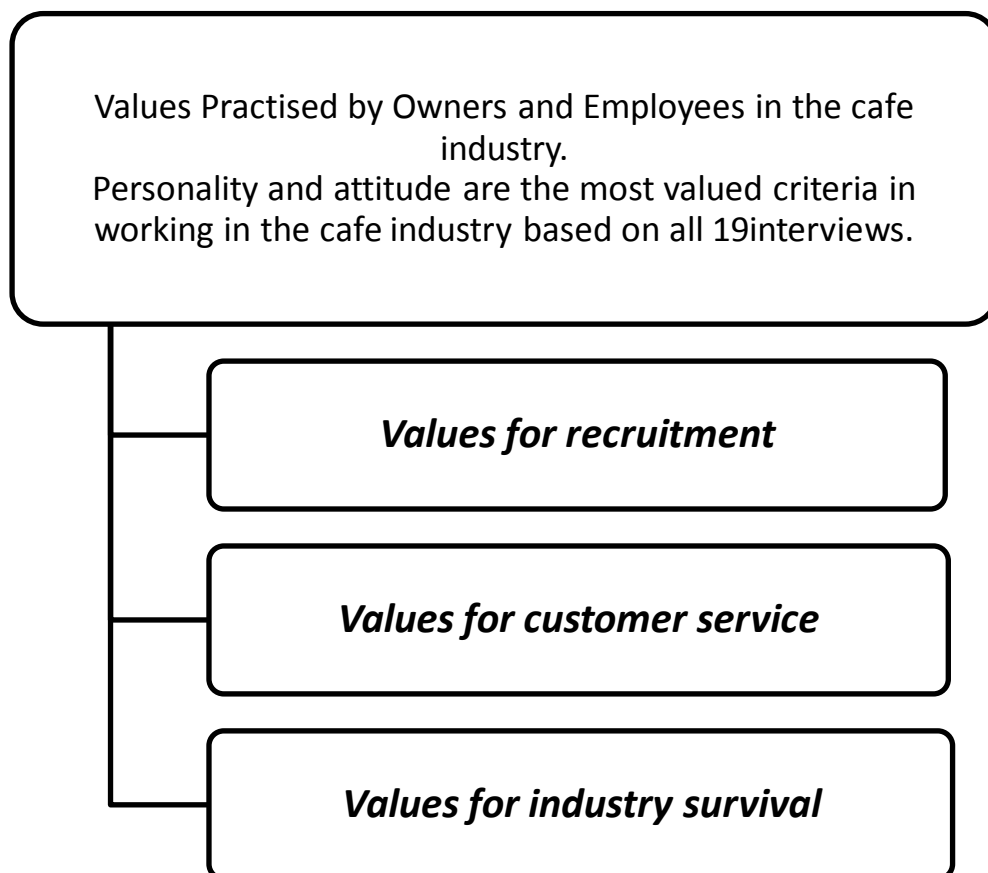
- High quality staff
- Enough staff to run the business
- Have job trial to recruit staff
- Certain qualification is needed for certain roles
- Job Interviews
 1. Based on CV
 2. Based on self-appearance if they walk into the cafe

- 3. First impression on the candidate
- Job Advertisement
 - 4. Website
 - 5. Flyers
 - 6. Newspaper
 - 7. Words of mouth
 - 8. Advertisement on counter
- Make better recruitment after a period of time
 - 9. Who to employ
 - 10. Who not to employ

Monitoring System

- Managers on duty
- Service quality monitoring through appraisals
- Owner/Manager to be always on site to monitor what is going on
- To be the owner, to be the operator, the entrepreneur, the technician at the same time
- Camera Monitor Surveillance
- Mystery customer programme

Values Practised by Owners and Employees in the cafe industry.



Values for recruitment

1. Friendliness
2. Happy
3. Cheerful
4. Confidence
5. Approachable
6. Hardworking
7. Bubbly
8. Patient
9. Good/Likes being with people
10. Independent
11. Responsible
12. Honest
13. Respectful
14. Smiles genuinely
15. Passionate
16. Compassionate

Values for customer service

1. Get to know customers background
2. Make sure customers are greeted
3. Make customers feel warm upon entering the cafe
4. Talk/listen to the customers
5. Present yourself having the best time
6. Humility
7. Established good relationship with customers
8. Impressive (appearance)
9. To educate customers
10. To entertain every single customer
11. Treat customer like they are in their own home
12. Engage well with customers
13. The customer is always right
14. We are servants of the customer

Values for industry survival

1. Efficient
2. Communications skills
3. Able to multitask
4. Experienced (in hospitality)
5. Teamwork
6. Enthusiasm
7. Keep an eye on things
8. Constant working process
9. Initiative
10. Takes the initiative in handling work hiccups/pre-empt of the situation
11. Consistency
12. People skill

13. Listening Skill
14. Good work ethic**
15. "If I can do this, you can do it too" attitude
16. Pleasure in doing the job
17. Job satisfaction
18. To face challenge
19. Respect other people ways in dealing with issues
20. Everyone is treated equally
21. Everybody's idea is worth contributing
22. Reliable
23. To make it right every time
24. To keep doing better
25. Complacency in work
26. To keep up with customers demand

Brand

- Expectation from the brand
- Giving back to the brand
- Sense of belonging to the brand
- Known brand
- Creating strong brand
- The importance of the café name
- To be careful with the logo/shop name
- Owner's reputation (good name)

What Customer Wants/Expects?

- Value for money
 1. Price to suit their income/ disposable income
- Choose to come out to have a nice time
 2. Have fun
 3. Good experience
 4. To be remembered
- To let the customer know they made a good decision to the cafe
 5. To feel relax and comfortable
 6. To see happiness in the store
 7. To meet their expectation
 8. To get best consumer product
- Completing the loyalty programme is a good achievement for customer
- Getting to know the customer
- Customers always right
 9. To listen to the customer
 10. To understand the customer's mode
 11. To keep up to their demand

Product Offered/Service Provided

1. Menu/ala-carte/sit down menu
2. Fresh Food

3. Healthy food
4. Daily food
5. Premade food
6. Varieties of food to choose
7. Customize/Good coffee beans
8. Gluten free
9. Vegetarian
10. Organic
11. Fair trade concept
12. Local food
13. Price (expensive because of good quality)
14. Attractive display cabinet
15. Children friendly premise (toys)

Basic facilities

1. Clean toilets/restroom
2. Storage (kitchen)
3. Doing activities
4. Parking lot
5. Provide other service
6. Garden setting
7. One size fits all (suitable for any age)
8. Counter service/table service
9. Children friendly

Promotions/Advertising

- On site promotions
 1. Black board
 2. Signature board
 - New things on the menu
 3. Today's menu special
- Public Promotions
 4. Website
 5. Banner
 6. Billboard
 7. The Press (local newspaper)
 8. Word of mouth
 9. Flyers
 10. Breakfast specials
 11. Published in magazines
 12. Published in newspapers
- Other attractions/Provide other services
 13. Coffee roasters
 14. Laundry
 15. Gift shops
 16. Book shops
 17. Organic products
 18. Furniture shop

- 19. Barista class
- 20. Farm (berry picking)
- 21. Paintings/arts
- Loyalty Programme
 - 22. Point of sales
 - 23. Loyalty card
 - 24. Coffee stamp
- Big “figure” in coffee industry
- Award by city council
- Seasonal Decorations

On coffee: To be a good barista

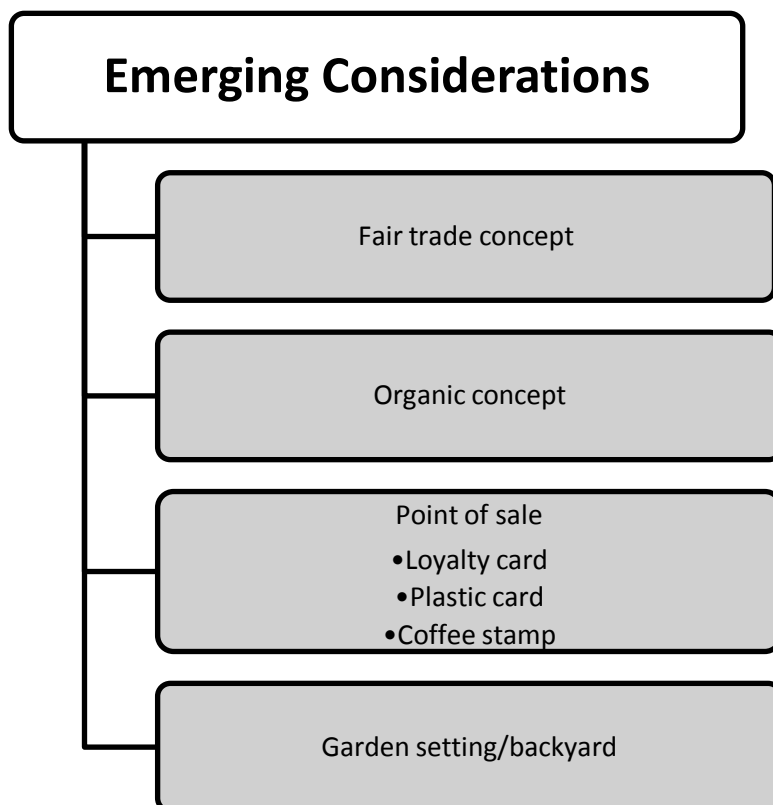
- Experience with coffee
- To learn about the coffee
 - 1. Research about the coffee
 - 2. Learning from another person
 - 3. Getting better from others
 - 4. To understand about coffee
- To develop barista skill:
 - 5. Keep trying
 - 6. Keep copying
 - 7. Keep practicing
 - 8. To enter competition
- Create your own coffee
 - 9. To know about the beans/green bean/farmers
 - 10. To have a try on every different angle
 - 11. Different country beans, different taste
 - 12. Certain beans gives certain taste, sweetness, body
 - 13. To learn a lot of techniques
 - 14. To try different blends/mixes of coffee
 - 15. To know where the coffee comes from
- To be expert in the process of:
 - 16. Roasting coffee
 - 17. Cupping
 - 18. Mastering the machine(s)
 - 19. Understand the grinder
 - 20. Basic knowledge in dosing
 - 21. Tamping
 - 22. Understanding the extraction flow
 - 23. To prepare the shot
 - 24. The coffee(water) temperature
- Coffee and wine are similar

External factors in the café business

- 1. Recession Period
- 2. Season
- 3. Customers attitude
- 4. Suppliers (that understands the needs)

5. Getting business license
6. Liquor license
7. City council rules
8. Red tape
9. Outside garden
10. Business Competition
11. Financial support
12. Location

Emerging Considerations



C.2 Findings : Intelligent concepts

Intelligent Concept Creation by the ICS participants.

Participants	Unique attributes
ICS 01	Asian and Western cuisine, strategic location.
ICS 02	Coffee shop plus bookshop concept.
ICS 03	Ethnic atmosphere with antiques decorations.
ICS 04	Coffee shop plus gift for man store concept.
ICS 05	Educating customer on fair-trade.
ICS 06	Small and cosy private space.
ICS 07	Out in the countryside, very grounded to its own community.
ICS 08	Coffee shop plus furniture shops concept.
ICS 09	Personnel attraction, by the roadside.
ICS 10	Coffee shop plus gift shop concept.
ICS 11	Strategic tourist location, attractive name.
ICS 12	Strategic tourist location, more international flavour.
ICS 13	Entertainment centre suitable for all group and ages.
ICS 14	Updated customer database.
ICS 15	Nature-like concept, lively atmosphere.

